

CHROMOSOMAL VESICLES AND THE STRUCTURE OF THE RESTING NUCLEUS IN *PHASEOLUS*.

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In 1885 Rabl formulated a theory which is essentially our modern theory of continuity of chromosomes. Since that time cytologists and geneticists have very thoroughly discussed this problem, with its bearing on our conception of the structure of the nucleus and the related problems of genetics. Unfortunately, even at the present time, a large part of the evidence for the individuality of chromosomes is purely inferential; consequently the subject still rests on a rather hypothetical basis. Only in one case have the chromosomal vesicles with clear outlines been traced through the resting nucleus and in this instance the conditions were such that the observations cannot be applied to other forms with any degree of safety (Richards, 1917). Other workers have identified chromophilic bands in the resting nucleus as chromosomes, but the outlines of the vesicles were not visible (Sharp, 1914; Wenrich, 1916). In addition to the above isolated cases a great deal of strong inferential evidence for the individuality of chromosomes has been accumulated (Boveri, Conklin, etc.).

While engaged in studying the cytological changes accompanying the ripening and germination of the seeds of the common bean, *Phaseolus vulgaris*, a number of observations were made which indicated that *Phaseolus* affords favorable material for studying the reconstruction of daughter nuclei and interpreting their resting structure. This material was even more promising because of the fact that the resting nucleus of *Phaseolus* is quite similar to that of some other plants.

I wish to express my gratitude to Mr. G. T. Kline, artist, St. Louis University School of Medicine, for his skillful preparation of the plates, and to Professor Albert Kuntz for kindly reading the manuscript.

MATERIAL AND METHODS.

The root tips of growing *Phaseolus* seedlings were used. Since a matter of considerable controversy was the subject of this work it was thought desirable to use a number of fixatives.

Flemming's strong gave excellent results, though only the peripheral portion of the root could be used. Root tips treated with this fixative show three degrees of fixation. In the outer layers of cells the cytoplasm and nucleus appear quite normal, though the linin of the nucleus is not quite so accentuated as in Bouin's. The next few layers of cells appear to be poorly fixed, but are valuable for comparison with the outer cells. The innermost part of the root tip does not seem to have been penetrated at all.

Bouin's proved to be very valuable since it slightly swells the chromatin and accentuates the linin. There was no indication that the actual structure was hidden or changed, but rather that certain features of normal structure were made more evident. The cytoplasm was not as well fixed as in Flemming's strong. The tissue was fixed all the way through.

Alcoholic Bouin's and a mixture of three parts Bouin's to one part one per cent. osmic acid gave only fair results, inferior in all respects to Flemming's and Bouin's. Zenker's, Carnoy's and corrosive-acetic-alcohol shrunk the cells to such an extent that they were of no value whatever.

Very slow dehydration was found to be essential. Starting with thirty per cent. alcohol two to three days were consumed in the process of dehydration. The tips were embedded in hard paraffin and cut at 4 micra.

The sections were stained in iron-alum-hæmatoxylin and lightly counterstained with eosin.

OBSERVATIONS.

Since the principal object of this work is the interpretation of the structure of the resting nucleus the logical starting point is the reconstruction of daughter nuclei. This will be followed by a description of the resting nucleus and the account will end with the prophase.

Reconstruction of Daughter Nuclei.—One of the features probably responsible for the value of *Phaseolus* for a study of this

subject is the uniformly small size of the short rod-like chromosomes. As is usually the case with chromosomes of this kind they migrate to the poles with their long axis parallel to the long axis of the spindle and the advancing chromosomes are so evenly placed on the spindle that an almost perfect ring is formed. This perfect order is maintained after the daughter chromosomes come in contact with each other at the poles and at the time when the apparent fusion occurs the chromosomal mass appears as a rectangle with its greatest dimension at right angles to the long axis of the spindle. At this time the outlines of the chromosomes are not clear and we can recognize the individual chromosomes only by the corrugation on the sides of the rectangle. The rounded ends of the chromosomes prevent their tips from coming in contact with each other and are responsible for the corrugations on the margins of the mass of chromosomes (Fig. 1). Shortly after the appearance of globules of achromatic material in the chromosomes the notched edges of the chromatin mass disappear and the outline of the reconstructing nucleus becomes smooth.

In rare instances the chromosomes are not perfectly parallel when they become contiguous with each other at the poles. In such cases the chromatin mass is not as regular as described above.

Figures 2 and 3 make a very important point for this description. Fig. 2 illustrates the beginning of vacuolization in one of the daughter nuclei, and in the other the vacuolization has proceeded to such an extent that distinctly clear areas are appearing in the proximal¹ ends of the chromosomes.

This figure also shows that the achromatic globules occur between the indentation on the proximal surface of the nucleus and that a linin strand runs inward from the indentation and joins that part of the chromatin mass which has not yet taken up achromatic material. A little later in the process of reconstruction the proximal side of the nucleus becomes less chromatic, the vacuolized portion of the chromosomes being more extensive. The indentations, especially on the proximal surface, are still quite pronounced and linin strands extending inward from them are also prominent.

¹ Throughout this paper the ends of the chromosomes towards the equator of the spindle will be termed "proximal," while the opposite end will be called "distal."

It is well to emphasize at this point an interpretation of the linin strands which, doubtless has already occurred to the reader. The fact that they invariably run inward from the indentations on the surface of the chromatin mass which represent the points of contiguity of adjacent chromosomes strongly indicates that they as well as the superficial indentations, represent the line of contiguity of adjacent chromosomes. This also supports the conception of chromosome structure held by many zoologists, notably Conklin, that the chromosome consists of a linin bag filled with chromatin. Achromatic globules appear in the chromatin groundwork of the interior of the chromosomes while the linin bag remains unaltered, except for the swelling due to increase of material within it. At this early stage of reconstruction there is no evidence whatever for the existence of linin strands within the external chromosomal sheath (Fig. 3).

The process of vacuolization normally continues until about three fourths of the length of the chromosome contains a large part of achromatic material, the so-called granules of chromatin occurring principally along the linin strands. The distal fourth of the chromosome is still a solid mass of chromatin and so it remains until the reconstruction of the nucleus is complete (Fig. 4). The imbibition of achromatin by the proximal ends of the chromosomes has not yet been completed. This continues and causes the increase in size of the daughter nucleus up to the time when it ceases swelling and enters the interphase or the resting period.

Since the distal fourth of the chromatin mass does not take up achromatin, it does not increase in size in harmony with the proximal portion of the chromosomes, and the latter tends to swell out over it and, as it were, to engulf it. This causes the linin strands, representing lines of contact of chromosomes, to change their position, and, ceasing to be parallel to the long axis of the cell, they become radiating strands with the non-vacuolized chromatin mass as their center. At the same time the solid distal ends of the chromosomes tend to clump. Fig. 4 illustrates a cell in which the daughter nuclei still have the non-vacuolized portion of every chromosome distinctly separated. From this point on they start joining so that nuclei may be

found with only four, three or two masses of chromatin within them (Figs. 5 and 6). Fig. 6 illustrates two of these bodies in the act of joining.

As pointed out above the vacuolization of the proximal portion of the chromatin mass tends to turn the outer ends of the linin strands outward from the long axis of the cell, while the clumping of the solid ends of the chromosomes drags their other end towards a somewhat central point in the nucleus, resulting in the strands radiating from the chromatin mass, which might now be termed the nucleolus or karyosome, like the spokes of a wheel from the hub. The above gives only a two dimensional view of the process which, naturally, is not complete. The chromosomes migrate to the poles of the spindle covering it all the way around, consequently, when the proximal ends of the chromosomes swell and the distal ends join to form the nucleolus the linin strands radiate from the nucleolus, not like spokes from a hub, but like spines from the body of a bur.

When all of the small masses of chromatin first join to form the nucleolus the latter body is irregularly shaped, but it rapidly assumes the spherical form typical of nucleoli of resting nuclei. Fig. 8 represents a dividing cell in which the nucleolus in one of the daughter nuclei is almost spherical while that in the other daughter nucleus is irregular.

Interphase and Resting Nucleus.—The term "interphase" is used to signify the interkinetic period in the rapidly dividing cells of the root tip while the nuclei farther up the root that are dividing slowly or not at all will be called "resting" nuclei. The interphase nucleus exhibits a relatively large nucleolus which may contain one or more achromatic globules, and relatively little scattered chromatin. The linin strands which, as shown above, represent the line of contiguity of adjacent chromosomes, are quite evident in such nuclei. The few disperse chromatin granules are found principally around the periphery of the nucleus and even there are not sufficiently abundant to obscure the linin strands (Fig. 10). During the dormant period of the bean seed the scattered chromatin either enters the nucleolus or becomes closely appressed to the nuclear membrane, as has been previously shown (Kater, MSS.). In such nuclei there is nothing

to obscure the linin strands, and, consequently, they are very generally visible (Fig. 12).

One might ask why the number of linin strands seen in the telophase and in resting nuclei is so small in comparison with the number of chromosomes in *Phaseolus*. It is only necessary to consider again that the nucleus has three dimensions and that, when observing a complete nucleus many of the linin strands are seen in end view, and it is only the ones in a plane parallel to the slide that are seen as definite lines.

In the resting nucleus there is a much greater abundance of scattered chromatin than in the interphase. Likewise there is a compensatory decrease in the size of the nucleolus and the scattered granules come up almost to the nucleolus, leaving a very small perinucleolar zone. When tissue is fixed in Bouin's small sections of the linin strands can be made out, but after fixation in Flemming's strong the linin strands are rarely seen in such nuclei. The abundance of scattered chromatin obscures them (Fig. 11). There can be no doubt as to their presence because in the same area of a ripe embryo, when the scattered chromatin has disappeared, they are quite evident and are invariably visible in interphase nuclei.

In properly fixed cells the nuclei have no resemblance whatever to the perfect reticulated network figured for plant nuclei by Gregoire (1904) and Sharp (1914). A somewhat similar structure is found in the second zone of Flemming's fixation, mentioned above. Slight indications of the chromatin bands which Sharp identifies as chromosomes may also be seen (Fig. 13). It seems probable that such slight distortion does not actually mislead the observer, but merely clumps the chromatin of each individual chromosome and enables the observer to trace structures which otherwise he could not recognize.

Before concluding this description of the resting nucleus we should emphasize the existing relationship between the chromosomes, as outlined in the description of the reconstruction of daughter nuclei. Every chromosome in the resting nucleus must be essentially a pentagon with four of the sides equal triangles while the fifth side has a convex surface and serves as a part of the nuclear membrane. The inner point of this wedge-like

structure, where the four triangles come together, consists of non-vacuolated chromatin and makes up a part of the nucleolus. The outer part is principally achromatic and, consequently, much larger. Thus, every chromosome contributes to the formation of the nucleolus and likewise to the so-called nuclear reticulum. As stated above in distinguishing between interphase and rest, when the meristematic region moves forward leaving behind it cells that cease dividing we find an increase of scattered chromatin and a decrease in the size of the nucleolus. Since every chromosome enters into the formation of the nucleolus, this giving up of material by the latter body affects all of them and inasmuch as the nucleolus remains practically spherical the chromosomes apparently are equally active.

Prophase.—Before attempting to interpret the structure of the resting nucleus it is necessary that one study the development of that body in the telophase. It is equally necessary that one check these results by studying the behavior of the chromosomes during the prophase.

The onset of mitosis is first indicated by an increase of size and of the basophilic character of the scattered chromatin granules (Fig. 14). The next evident change is the appearance of considerable quantities of chromatin on the linin strands (Figs. 15). A little later the nucleus becomes smaller and consists almost entirely of chromatin. The linin strands are now covered with heavy bands of chromatin and the intervening spaces are well filled with large chromatin granules (Fig. 16).

The next change is important and introduces a very revolutionary fact. The nuclear membrane does not dissolve and disappear as has been universally described previously. Breaks appear in its wall, but each break leads into a short channel which terminates before reaching the general outline of the nucleolus, and this channel is bordered on either side by the end of a chromosome, now fully formed except that one end is still imbedded in the nucleolus. Fig. 17 shows a cell in which one side of the nuclear membrane is still intact and one can see that it appears to be continuous with the chromosomes projecting from the nucleolus on the other side.

The spherical outline of the nucleus entirely disappears in the

manner described above and there remains in the place of the old nucleus a mass of chromosomes with one end of each still imbedded in the apparently homogeneous nucleolus and the other end projecting freely (Fig. 18). In order to return to the point at which this description started the chromosomes have only to separate. This is a gradual process. Cases may be observed in which only one or two chromosomes have become entirely separated from the rest of the mass (Fig. 19). From this condition we go, chromosome by chromosome, to the point where all or nearly all of them are separate (Fig. 20).

The chromosomes of *Phaseolus* are too small to be favorable for a study of the process of splitting and since that is not the subject of this work no careful attempt has been made to follow that phenomenon.

HISTORICAL AND DISCUSSION.

Reconstruction of Daughter Nuclei.—*Phaseolus* has been used by several investigators in studies of mitosis and nuclear structure. Wager (1904) has given a very excellent account of mitosis in this plant and, in view of the fact that he did not properly interpret his observations, the accuracy with which he figured them is remarkable. Although he did not follow the nuclear changes in the telophase closely enough to show conclusively that the linin strands, which apparently connect the nucleolus with the nuclear membrane in the resting stage, are the linin sheaths of chromosomes and that the chromosomes retain their individuality through the resting period, he, nevertheless, gives several very suggestive figures. Figs. 29 and 30 in his account are practically the same as Figs. 4 and 6 in the present work. The principal object of his study was to discover the origin of the nucleolus and his conclusion that it arises by the joining of non-vacuolated ends of chromosomes has been clearly verified by the present observations.

Wager observed and figured telophase conditions which, if they had been carried a little further, would have shown conclusively that the chromosomes of this plant are continuous from one mitosis to the next. He merits credit for being the first to make such clear observations of this phenomenon even though his

interpretations were entirely beside the mark and his paper did not attract widespread attention.

This author figures the linin strands in resting nuclei as well as their development in the telophase. His observations on both of these phases have been violently attacked by Martins Mano (1905). Immediately after the appearance of Wager's article Martins Mano undertook to repeat his work on *Phaseolus*. The latter concluded that the nuclear reticulum arises by the "branching and anastamosing" of telophase chromosomes and that the nucleolus appears independently and rather suddenly after the reconstruction of the daughter nuclei is almost complete. His figures of the telophase, which led to the above incorrect interpretations, can be explained on the basis of Fig. 7. This figure illustrates a cell through which the plane of the section passed in such a way that a very small portion of one of the daughter nuclei appears in the section. The non-vacuolized portions of the chromosomes are entirely absent and, since only a small part of the side of the reconstituting nucleus is present the proximal ends of the chromosomal vesicles appear in cross section and consequently fail to show the even division of the nucleus by parallel linin strands. The other nucleus in this dividing cell exhibits the normal picture. Martins Mano admitted that structures similar to Wager's description were found, but claimed that the ones which he figures were of more frequent occurrence. In the light of the present work it can be safely said that Martins Mano must have exercised a great deal of patience in searching for the abnormal and infrequently occurring cells which he figured and with which he tried to support the theory that the reconstruction of nuclei is by the branching and anastamosing of telophase chromosomes, a theory which is incorrect in the case of *Phaseolus*. Martins Mano says that the linin strands which Wager figures as running from the nucleolus to the nuclear membrane do not exist, but are a part of the reticulum above the nucleolus. Their presence in the dormant seed, when the reticulum disappears shows that Wager was correct.

The great majority of described cases of chromosomal vesicles appearing during the reconstruction of nuclei are from animal eggs. Such structures have been described and discussed so

frequently that it is not worth while to devote space to them here (Boveri, 1909; Moenkhaus, 1904; Conklin, 1912; Richards, 1917).

The vacuolization of plant chromosomes has not been so frequently described and is not so easily studied because the chromosomes do not take up as much achromatic material as do the chromosomes of animal eggs. The early vacuolization of the chromosomes of *Vicia* was studied by Sharp (1914). This plant has large chromosomes and affords very favorable material for the botanical approach to the subject. The chromosomes of *Phaseolus* are small and not suited to a study of this kind. Their great value for the present work lies in the fact that when the chromosomes come in contact with each other at the poles of the spindle they are perfectly parallel with each other. This fact, together with their rounded ends makes it possible to identify the linin strands as the linin sheaths of chromosomes.

Similar linin strands have been figured in the resting nuclei of other plants (Martins Mano, 1904; Bergs, 1906; Lutman, 1925). These investigators as well as Derschau (1904) have also described the telophase in a manner which indicates that the condition in those forms on which they were working is very similar to that of *Phaseolus*.

Prophase.—In the only case in which chromosomal vesicles have been traced through the resting stage of the nucleus (Richards, 1917) the figures are so clear and convincing that one has no cause whatever to doubt the endogenous formation of chromosomes. The new chromosomes are formed in the prophase vesicles and are set free by the dissolution of the old walls. After reading this account of the formation of chromosomes in *Fundulus* it was very surprising to find that they are not formed in the same way in *Phaseolus*, but that the chromosomal vesicles merely lose their achromatic content, contracting and giving rise to the new chromosomes, the old linin sheath apparently being continuous from one division through the next.

Wager concluded that the nuclear membrane of *Phaseolus* dissolves. However, his figures do not entirely justify that conclusion and indicate that his material was identical with that used in the present study. The author knows of no account at

the present time which would justify the conclusion that in any other plants or animals the prophase chromosomes are formed in the same way as in the bean.

Martins Mano states that the nucleolus of *Phaseolus* does not contribute to the formation of chromosomes. The figures of the present paper as well as those of Wager are quite conclusive on this point and show that he was mistaken.

The Nucleolus or Karyosome.—In the many descriptions and discussions of chromatin nucleoli the various authors have not taken account of the fact that the nucleolus may be made up of a non-alveolized portion of every chromosome, as in the case in *Phaseolus*. If the chromatin nucleolus is a store-house for chromatin it is quite natural that it should be found at the meeting point of all the chromosomes, since the latter remain distinct throughout the resting phase of the nucleus.

Continuity of Chromosomes.—The significance of chromosomal continuity for various problems of cytology and genetics has been completely discussed previously, even before Richards had, for the first time, traced chromosomal vesicles through the interkinetic nucleus (Moenkhaus, 1904; Conklin, 1902; Wenrich, 1916; Richards, 1917; Wilson, 1925). A repetition of this discussion would be superfluous.

SUMMARY.

1. When the chromosomes of *Phaseolus* reach the poles of the spindle they come in contact with each other, all lying parallel to the long axis of the spindle. The individual chromosomes can be traced by the indentations on the surface of the chromatin mass.
2. Vacuolization of chromosomes begins in the end nearest the equator of the cell (the proximal end).
3. The distal ends of the chromosomes do not become alveolized, but join to form the chromatin nucleolus. There is no plasmasome present in the root-tip cells of *Phaseolus*.
4. The linin sheath of the chromosomes becomes visible in conjunction with the telophasic vacuolization and can be traced through the interphase and resting condition, thus showing that the chromosomes remain distinct from one mitosis to the next.

5. The chromosome is considered as a linin bag filled with chromatin. *Therefore, in the interkinetic nucleus the chromosomes are contiguous and the chromatin of adjacent chromosomes is discrete.*

6. The chromosomes arise in the prophase by the chromosomal vesicles losing the achromatic globules within them and contracting to form the apparently homogeneous metaphase chromosomes.

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EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

All figures drawn from sections 4 micra thick with aid of Abbe camera lucida and Leitz 2 mm. oil immersion lens. Figs. 1, 4, 7, 10, 11, 13, and 15 to 22 from material fixed in Flemming's strong; the remaining figures from sections fixed in Bouin's. All sections stained with iron-alum-hæmatoxylin and lightly counter-stained with eosin. With the exception of figures 21 and 22 all drawings represent structures in two dimensions. Magnification—1900 X.

PLATE I.

FIG. 1. The chromosomes have become contiguous at the poles of the spindle. Individual chromosomes can be traced by their rounded ends.

FIG. 2. Vacuolization is beginning. Rounded ends still indicate limits of each chromosome.

FIG. 3. Vacuolization continued. Disperse chromatin granules in chromosomal vesicles.

FIG. 4. Note non-vacuolized portion of each chromosome. Linin strands represent line of contiguity of different chromosomes. Chromatin granules in vesicles.

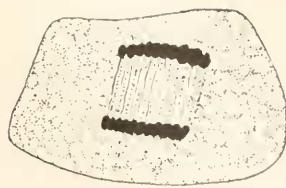
FIG. 5. The linin borders of the chromosomes are still prominent and the non-vacuolized ends of the chromosomes are joining.

FIG. 6. A continuation of the changes illustrated by Fig. 5. Note lower nucleus where the two last non-vacuolized portions of chromatin are joining to form chromatin nucleolus or karyosome. Disperse chromatin granules are located principally around the periphery of the nucleus.

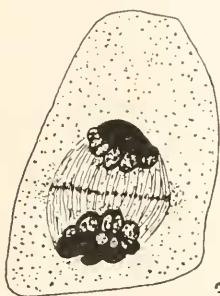
FIG. 7. Approximately the same stage of development as Fig. 6. The section was so cut that the nucleolus does not appear in one of the daughter nuclei. Note that the linin strands are not parallel in this one.

FIG. 8. Completion of the joining of the non-vacuolized chromosome ends to form the nucleoli. Nucleolus approximately spherical in one daughter nucleus. Linin sheaths of chromosomes still prominent.

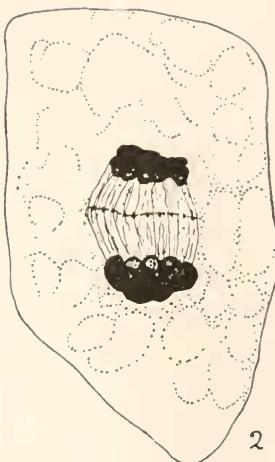
FIG. 9. Polar view of reconstructing nucleus. This nucleus is at about the same stage of development as Fig. 5. The linin strands are not parallel as in side view.



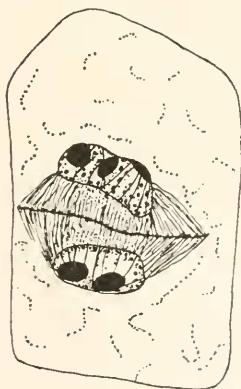
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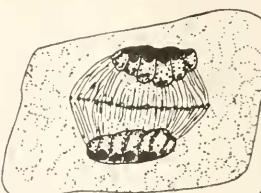
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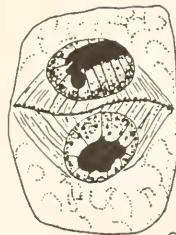
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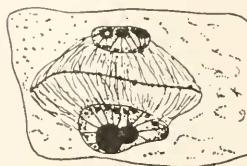
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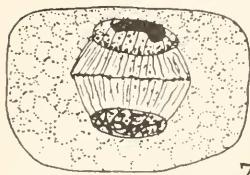
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PLATE II.

FIG. 10. Interphase nucleus from the meristematic tissue at the tip of the root. Disperse chromatin granules around the periphery of the nucleus. Linin sheaths of chromosomes prominent.

FIG. 11. Resting nucleus from slowly growing region of the root. Nucleolus smaller than in interphase and disperse chromatin so abundant that the linin strands are obscured.

FIG. 12. Cell from the radicle of a dry mature bean embryo. Disperse chromatin has disappeared. Linin sheaths of chromosomes are very prominent.

FIG. 13. Resting cell illustrating poor fixation by Flemming's solution, excepting a few peripheral layers of cells.

FIG. 14. Early prophase. The disperse chromatin granules are becoming larger, fewer, and stain more darkly.

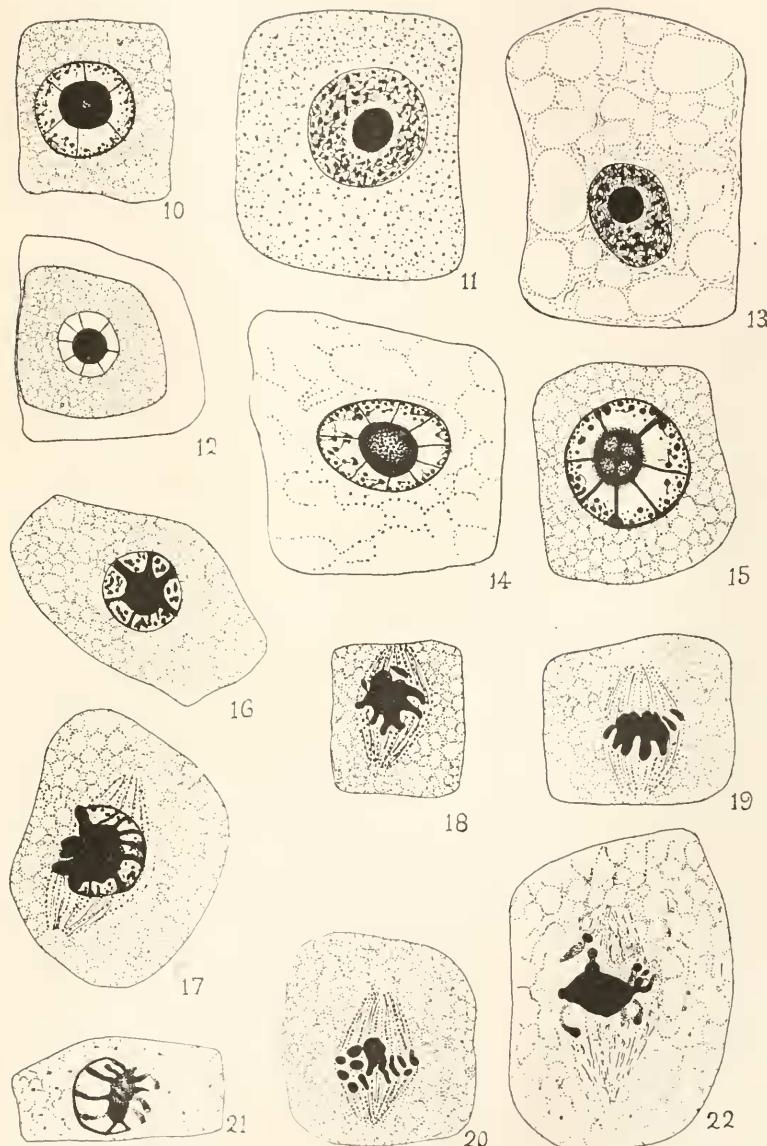
FIG. 15. Prophase continued. The disperse granules are larger and a heavy band of chromatin is appearing along the linin strands.

FIG. 16. A continuation of processes illustrated in Fig. 15.

FIG. 17. The chromosomal vesicles on one side of the nucleus have lost all chromatic material and are contracting to form chromosomes. Note that the nuclear membrane of the other side is continuous with the nearest formed chromosomes.

Figs. 18, 19 AND 20. Further steps in the contractions of chromosomal vesicles and separation of the chromosomes.

Figs. 21 AND 22. Drawings showing the chromosome elements in three dimensions. Compare 21 to 17 and 22 to 19.



BIOLOGICAL BULLETIN

GENETIC STUDIES IN POULTRY.¹

I. THE SEX RATIO IN THE DOMESTIC FOWL.

W. V. LAMBERT AND C. W. KNOX.

INTRODUCTION.

In comparison with mammals the sex ratio in birds has been studied by relatively few investigators. The first report on the sex ratio in birds appears to have been made by Darwin in 1871. He noted that the per cent. of males to females in 1,001 chickens raised by Stretch was 48.65. Field (1901) in 2,105 chickens reported a sex ratio of 44.63, Thomsen (1911) in 805 observations a sex ratio of 47.82, Pearl (1917) in 22,791 cases a percentage of 48.57 males, Crew and Huxley (1923) a sex ratio of 49.26 in a total of 753 chicks and embryos examined, Jull (1924) a sex ratio of 48.88 on 2,396 individuals sexed, and Mussehl (1924) a percentage of 52.24 males from a total of 1,514 chicks upon which observations were made. In pigeons Cole and Kirkpatrick (1915) found that the per cent. of males to females was 51.06 on a total of 1,800 squabs and embryos examined.

The above data represent the total ratios observed by the various investigators on living chicks and dead embryos. With respect to the prenatal sex ratio, however, the data are less extensive, although the sex of the chicken may be quite readily told macroscopically by the ninth day of incubation. Of those reporting on the prenatal sex ratio, Pearl (1917) has the most extensive data, and he gives a sex ratio of 48.3 from a total of 1,921 embryos dying between the tenth day of incubation and

¹ Paper No. 12 from the Department of Genetics coöperating with Poultry Husbandry, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa. The writers are indebted to Professor H. A. Bittenbender for permission to use the material for this study and to Doctor E. W. Lindstrom for valuable suggestions.

hatching. Jull (1924) found a sex ratio of 47.18 in embryos dying after the eleventh day of incubation taken as an average of the results of continuous hatches throughout a three-year period. Thomsen (1911) in a total of 805 embryos examined before hatching found a ratio of 47.82, while Crew and Huxley (1923) observed a prenatal sex ratio of 45.24 out of a total of 420 embryos examined. In the latter case, some of the parents of the embryos were subjected to treatment with a thyroid extract.

MATERIAL AND METHODS.

The material for the present study was obtained primarily from the F_1 and F_2 generations and backcross chicks of crosses made between the Rhode Island Red and White Leghorn breeds, and also of F_1 data from crosses made reciprocally between the Black Langshan and White Plymouth Rock, the Black Langshan and Buff Orpington, and the White Plymouth Rock and Buff Orpington. In addition a number of observations were made on data from the White Leghorn breed.

All eggs were candled on the sixth, twelfth, and eighteenth days of incubation, and embryos found dead on these respective days were classified as D_1 , D_2 and D_3 . All embryos found dead between the eighteenth day of incubation and the day of hatching were listed as dead in the shell (DS). All chicks of the D_3 and DS classes, and chicks dying before it was possible to determine their sex from the external appearance, were dissected and the sex determined in that manner. The sex ratio on all living chicks was determined as soon as that was possible from their external appearance.

In 1925 the total sex ratio from 121 hens between the hatching dates of March 4 and May 6 was obtained with the exception of losses due to straying, loss of bands, predatory enemies, and losses due to fire which destroyed a portion of the hatch of one week. Data are given showing the number of individuals upon which the sex was not determined, but there is no reason to believe that the sex ratio of these chicks would have deviated greatly from the ratios observed.

In addition to the above, observations were made upon the live chicks and dead embryos of a number of hens during the years

1924 and 1925. These data are not continuous throughout the hatching season but represent only data secured at various intervals during the hatching season. The record on any one hen, however, is complete for the period in which the observations were made.

The sex ratio as used herein expresses the percentage of males to females in the population.

RESULTS.

During the two years a grand total of 2,910 embryos and living chickens was examined. Of these 1,488 were males and 1,422 females or a sex ratio of 51.13. The results of the two years records are shown in Table I.

TABLE I.

THE TOTAL NUMBER OF MALES AND FEMALES OBSERVED AND THE SEX RATIO FOUND IN THE CHICKS HATCHING AND IN THE DEAD EMBRYOS.

Year.	D ₃ .			DS.			Chicks Hatching.			Totals.		
	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂
1924.....	13	8	61.90	26	34	43.33	68	81	45.64	107	123	46.52
1925.....	126	102	55.26	374	365	50.61	881	832	51.43	1,381	1,299	51.53
Totals....	139	110	55.82	400	399	50.06	949	913	50.97	1,488	1,422	51.13

It will be noted here that the sex ratio in each class, namely *D₃*, *DS* and living chicks, is over fifty, it being 55.82 in the *D₃*, 50.06 in the *DS* and 50.97 in the living chicks. The results in each of the two years are not in very close agreement although the same general trend exists in each case.

From the 2,910 individuals shown in Table I. a complete sex ratio was secured on 2,266 chicks and embryos developing from the eggs produced by 121 hens during the season of 1925. Of all eggs used from this group of 121 hens and that developed beyond the twelfth day of incubation, barring those chicks lost due to the causes previously mentioned, a complete sex ratio was obtained between the hatching dates of March 4 and May 6. These data are shown in Table II.

TABLE II.
THE COMPLETE SEX RATIO FOR DEAD EMBRYOS AND CHICKS HATCHING DURING SUCCESSIVE TWO-WEEK INTERVALS FOR 121 HENS DURING THE NORMAL HATCHING SEASON OF 1925.

Hatching Dates.	D ₃ .				D ₅ .				Chicks Hatching.				Totals.	
	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂	R♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂	R♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂	R♀♀	♀♀	R♂♂
March 4 and 11.....	11	6	64.70	71	51	58.20	134	155	46.37	216	212	50.47	226	50.47
March 18 and 25.....	28	25	52.83	66	78	44.44	113	123	47.88	207	207	47.81	301	53.41
April 1 and 8.....	45	36	55.55	86	58	59.72	243	207	54.00	374	374	55.41	220	215
April 15 and 22.....	15	9	62.50	29	32	47.54	176	174	50.28	153	153	51.86	142	51.86
April 29 and May 6.....	3	6	33.33	12	18	40.00	138	118	53.91	153	153	51.86	142	51.86
Totals.....	102	82	55.43	264	237	52.69	804	777	50.85	1,170	1,096	51.63	48.37	51.63
Per cents.....	4.50	3.62	11.65	10.46	35.48	34.29				51.63				

Of the 2,266 individuals shown in the above table 8.12 per cent. were embryos dead between the twelfth and eighteenth days of incubation, 22.11 per cent. between the eighteenth and twenty-first days, and 69.77 per cent. were chicks sexed after hatching. It is interesting to note in this connection that the most critical period of development is apparently between the eighteenth and twenty-first days of incubation. Of all eggs set and dying in the embryonic stage, 361 or 34.5 per cent. died before the twelfth day of incubation, 184 or 17.6 per cent. between the twelfth and eighteenth days, and 501 or 47.9 per cent. during the last three days of incubation.

The sex ratio is listed each week for the three classes D_3 , DS and chicks hatched respectively, together with the totals for each week and the total ratio of each class for the entire period with the corresponding ratio of males. These data in Table II. represent a total of 79.20 per cent. of all fertile eggs set during this time. Of the remaining 20.8 per cent. upon which the sex was not determined 12.62 per cent. or 361 died before the twelfth day of incubation and 8.18 per cent. or 234 were lost due to the causes listed.

In the D_3 class with the exception of the last two weeks interval the sex ratio is comparatively high, ranging from 52.83 to 64.70. However, no general trend is apparent during the consecutive intervals as the highest sex ratio appears in the interval from March 4 to 11 and the next highest in the period of April 15 to 22.

Of those embryos dying between the eighteenth and twenty-first days of incubation no general trend of the sex ratio is likewise apparent. In general, however, the sex ratio is lower than among the D_3 class.

Of the chicks sexed after hatching no particular trend is noted in the sex ratio from the beginning to the end of the hatching season. The per cent. of males of the chicks hatching varies from 46.37 to 54.00 with an average of 50.85. From the total of 2,266 chicks and embryos examined 1,170 or 51.63 per cent. are males and 1,096 or 48.37 per cent. females.

Some of the data included in Table I. were not complete for the whole season. These were obtained in both 1924 and 1925

and were tabulated without regard to the week in which they were obtained. On a few of the hens only data from the dead embryos were included, whereas, in others both data from dead embryos and chicks were included. In all cases, however, where the sex ratio of chicks was determined it represented a total hatch of those particular hens for that period. In other words it represents the complete record of the hens for any one interval. These unclassified data appear in Table III.

TABLE III.

THE OBSERVED SEX RATIO IN SOME UNCLASSIFIED DATA OBTAINED DURING THE NORMAL HATCHING SEASONS OF 1924 AND 1925.

Year.	<i>D</i> ₃ .			<i>D.S.</i>			Chicks Hatching.			Total.		
	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂	♂♂	♀♀	R♂♂
1924.....	24	20	54.55	110	128	46.22	77	55	58.23	211	203	50.97
1925.....	13	8	61.90	26	34	43.33	68	81	45.64	107	123	46.52
Totals.....	37	28	56.92	136	162	45.64	145	136	51.60	318	326	49.38

The large number of chicks dead between the eighteenth and twenty-first days of incubation appearing in the 1924 data is due to the fact, as mentioned before, that in some cases only the dead embryos of certain hens were sexed.

In this as in the preceding tables no very definite trend to the sex ratio is apparent. While there seems to be an excess of males in the *D*₃ column and an excess of females in the *D.S.* column the numbers are probably not large enough to indicate a selective mortality at the different stages of incubation. This would appear especially true since no similar condition appears for the more extensive data shown in Table II. In the chicks hatching listed in Table III. a high sex ratio occurred in 1924 and a low sex ratio in 1925. Hence it would appear that the variations noted in this table are probably due to the small numbers.

From the methodological standpoint Pearl (1917) has indicated the advantage of basing the sex ratio on families of ten or more individuals. He has compared the mean sex ratio of families of various sizes and finds the following ratios in each:

R ♂♂

Families of 10 and over.....	48.57 ± 0.28
Families of 4-9 inclusive.....	49.39 ± 0.84
Families of 1-3 inclusive.....	55.07 ± 2.11
Families of 4 and over.....	48.80 ± 0.33
Families all sizes.....	49.45

It becomes apparent from these figures that the smaller families are more likely to show extreme values of the sex ratio. In fact, according to Pearl, ratios above 80 and under 20 occur very rarely in families of ten or more.

The ratio of males for different colonies in the present experiment together with the number of hens in each colony is shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV.

THE SEX RATIO FOR THE DATA SHOWN IN TABLE II. LISTED ACCORDING TO BREEDING AND COLONIES.

Breeding.	No. of Birds in Colony.	D _a .		D.S.		Chicks Hatching.		Total.		R ♂♂
		♂♂	♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	
F ₂ (White Leghorn by Rhode Island Red).....	17	11	9	44	56	188	202	243	269	47.46
F ₁ (Black Langshan ♂, Buff Orpington ♀ ♀, White Plymouth Rock ♀ ♀).....	10	9	7	26	24	41	42	77	73	51.33
White Leghorn.....	13	14	11	19	21	73	52	106	84	55.79
F ₁ (Buff Orpington ♂, White Plymouth Rock ♀ ♀, Black Langshan ♀ ♀) ..	9	13	3	8	8	62	69	85	82	50.90
F ₁ (White Plymouth Rock ♂, Buff Orpington ♀ ♀, Black Langshan ♀ ♀) ..	7	2	4	17	9	30	26	49	39	55.68
F ₁ ♀ ♀ (White Leghorn ♂).....	12	8	10	31	21	83	74	122	106	53.51
F ₁ ♀ ♀ (Rhode Island Red ♂).....	11	16	11	17	24	79	76	112	101	50.22
F ₁ ♂ (Rhode Island Red ♀ ♀).....	11	8	6	24	20	54	51	86	78	52.44
F ₁ ♂ (White Leghorn ♀ ♀).....	11	19	12	12	14	43	49	74	76	49.33
White Leghorn.....	5	0	1	4	6	33	36	38	43	46.91
White Leghorn.....	15	2	8	62	34	114	91	178	135	56.87

The range in the data is from 46.91 in the smallest colony with a total of five birds to 56.87 per cent. males in a colony with fifteen birds. The average sex ratio for all colonies is 51.63.

Both the high and low sex ratios appear in colonies of White Leghorns. The individual range in the colony showing the lowest per cent. of males was from 33.3 to 66.7 per cent. In the colony showing the highest sex ratio the range was from 44.4 to 85.7 per cent. In tabulating this range only birds producing ten or more chicks and embryos that were sexed were included. This included all individuals in the small colony and fourteen out of the fifteen in the large colony. The average sex ratio in the last case when determined for the fourteen birds having 10 or more sexed offspring was 59.2. It was thought necessary in determining the range to include only birds having ten or more sexed offspring as any smaller number than that would hardly give a representative sample.

From the total of eleven colonies only three show sex ratios of less than 50. No relationship appears to exist between breeds and the sex ratio for the hybrids show about the same variation as do the pure breeds.

THE INFLUENCE OF EGG WEIGHT AND PRODUCTION UPON THE SEX RATIO.

Jull (1924) found no relationship between average weight of eggs and the sex ratio, and Jull and Quinn (1925) found no correlation between the weights of individual eggs and the chicks hatching from them.

Since the average egg weights for all F_1 hens used in this experiment were available as well as the sex ratio for these hens, a correlation between these two variables has been calculated. In this study only those hens that have a total of ten or more chicks or embryos upon which the sex had been determined were included, the total number being thirty-nine. The correlation coefficient for egg weight and percentage of males was -0.060 ± 0.108 . This correlation being smaller than its probable error certainly indicates that no direct relationship exists between these variables.

On this same group of F_1 birds the rate of production preceding the hatching season has not influenced the sex ratio. In this calculation the percentage rate of production was used. This rate of production was used because the birds began laying at

TABLE V.
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE AVERAGE INDIVIDUAL EGG WEIGHTS, THE ACTUAL EGG PRODUCTION DURING THE HATCHING SEASON, AND
THE RATE OF ANTECEDENT PRODUCTION RESPECTIVELY, WITH THE SEX RATIO AS THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE.

Variables.	Range.	Mean.	Coefficient of Variability.	Standard Deviation.	Correlation Coefficient.
A. Average individual egg weights (grams).	46.9-60.3	53.07 ± 0.32	7.51 ± 0.57	2.93 ± 0.22	<i>A-D</i> -0.060 ± 0.108
B. Actual egg production during hatching season	22-47	36.50 ± 0.65	15.51 ± 1.20	6.05 ± 0.46	<i>B-D</i> -0.009 ± 0.108
C. Antecedent egg production (per cent.)	11.1-57.9	43.00 ± 1.16	28.35 ± 2.22	10.49 ± 0.82	<i>C-D</i> -0.048 ± 0.111
D. Sex ratio (per cent.)	37.0-81.8	51.26 ± 1.06	25.03 ± 1.91	9.76 ± 0.75	

different dates and the rate was determined by dividing the total number of eggs laid by the number of days between the date of first egg and the beginning of the hatching season. The correlation coefficient in this case was -0.048 ± 0.111 . This correlation likewise is not significant and indicates, in this particular group of birds, that preceding production has not influenced the sex ratio.

In a study of the sex ratio based on hatches throughout the entire year Jull (1924) found a correlation of -0.704 ± 0.031 between the sex ratio and antecedent egg production. As the season advances the ratio of males decreases, and Jull concludes that the cause for this decrease is directly related to the antecedent egg production.

The rate of egg production during the hatching season, likewise, was found not to have influenced the sex ratio in this group of birds. The correlation coefficient between total production during the hatching season and the sex ratio was -0.009 ± 0.108 . This correlation, like the two preceding, is not significant being much smaller than its probable error.

Since the correlation coefficients in all three cases were negative and smaller than their respective probable errors the conclusion is justified that neither mean egg weight, as measured for each bird nor the rate of production both preceding and during the hatching season has influenced the sex ratio. In other words there is no tendency for those birds laying the fastest or laying the heaviest eggs to produce more or less males than the birds producing the fewest or the lightest eggs.

The correlations between these three variables together with their respective ranges, means, coefficients of variability, and standard deviations are shown in Table V.

DISCUSSION.

The data presented herein for the most part show a higher sex ratio than has been reported by other investigators. Mussehl (1924) reporting a sex ratio of 52.24 per cent. is the only one reporting a higher percentage of males. Cole and Kirkpatrick (1915) report approximately the same sex ratio in pigeons as is reported by the present writers, namely 51.06 per cent. All

other studies have indicated a ratio of less than fifty per cent. males, both for living chicks and dead embryos. No reason for this higher sex ratio is apparent. It is true that a number of the birds were lost due to various causes but the writers have no reason to believe that there was a selective mortality of the chicks that were lost.

The proportion of males among the embryos dying between the twelfth day and eighteenth day of incubation is rather high, being 55.82. However, if reference is made to Table IV. it may be seen that it does not hold consistently true that the males exceed the females in the D_3 class. In the DS class there is practically an equality of males and females, the ratio of males being 50.06. All previous investigators reporting on the prenatal sex ratio alone in birds have reported a sex ratio less than fifty per cent. They likewise have seemed agreed that a selective mortality of one sex or the other previous to hatching does not occur.

The number of birds upon which the correlations have been calculated is small but the results found here are in general agreement with those of other investigators. More of the birds were not included in these studies because the mean egg weight varies for different breeds and in most cases the antecedent egg product on the birds used in the various crosses was not known.

SUMMARY.

1. The sex ratio for 2,910 chicks and embryos examined was 51.13.
2. The sex ratio for total living chicks was 50.97, for embryos dying between the eighteenth and twenty-first days of incubation 50.06, and for embryos dying between the twelfth and eighteenth days 55.82 per cent.
3. No tendency for an increase or a decrease in the sex ratio as the hatching season progressed was noted.
4. The sex ratio of hybrid birds is approximately the same as for that of the pure breeds observed.
5. No relationship between the sex ratio and the factors of mean individual egg weight, antecedent egg production, and actual egg production during the hatching season is apparent.

The respective correlations found between these variables were -0.060 ± 0.108 ; -0.009 ± 0.108 ; and -0.048 ± 0.111 .

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LIFE CYCLE OF *NASSULA ORNATA* AND *NASSULA ELEGANS*: ARE THESE SPECIES VALID?

EDNA McNALLY.

I. DESCRIPTION.

Nassula is a ciliated protozoan living in fresh water where there is an abundance of *Oscillatoria* and not too much sunlight.

Laboratory cultures of *Nassula* for these experiments were maintained by placing them in ordinary square watch glasses with spring water and fresh *Oscillatoria*, and these in turn, placed in large covered glass vessels containing a small quantity of water. The cultures were kept in subdued light as direct sunlight was found to be fatal. All work on *Nassula* was done with pure lines started from one individual and maintained for nearly a year.

The genus *Nassula* was first described by Eherenberg about 1830. His description includes the species *Nassula ornata* and *Nassula elegans*, the main difference between the two being color, shape, and size. *N. ornata* he describes as being ovate or cylindrical, dark green or violet in color and about 200-240 micra in length. *N. elegans*, he gives as varying in color from red to transparent, elongated, and about 160 micra in length (Eyferth, 1900).

However there is great confusion in the classification of *Nassula*. Pritchard (61), describes *N. ornata* and *N. viridis* as the same species while Eyferth (60), describes *N. ornata* and *N. aurea* as the same. The species *N. elegans* as described by Pritchard is exactly opposite to the description given by Cohn (53), for the same species.

Not only the species are confused, but also the genus, as is shown by the following: "Stein hints it as probable that this species (*N. aurea*) and *N. viridis*, *Chilodon aureas* and *Ch. ornatus* are merely different stages of the same animal" (Pritchard, 61).

The entire body of *Nassula* is covered with cilia appearing in rows, approximately longitudinally disposed, over its surface.

The nuclear complex is peculiar in that it is not differentiated into micro- and macro-nuclei but is very similar to the nucleus of *Amæba proteus*. This statement does not agree with Cohn (53), who says of *N. elegans*, "Nucleus elliptic, with nucleolus lodged at one end." And Pritchard (61), with *N. elegans* in mind, thinks the "nucleus is stoutly clavate, and terminated by a small oblong nucleolus at its narrower extremity." The nucleus does not occupy a fixed position but is moved around by the streaming of the protoplasm.

The mouth opens into a pharyngeal apparatus composed of about twenty-five pharyngeal rods arranged in the form of a truncated cone, with the base anteriorly directed. This pharyngeal apparatus is described by all of the above mentioned authors for all species with the exception of Cohn (53), who states that there is no such apparatus in *N. elegans*. About one third of the way posterior to the base of this basket-like cone appears to be a "band of refractive protoplasm," as described by Eherenberg (60), for *N. elegans*. Nothing was said of this ring in *N. ornata*. However, I have been able to demonstrate this ring in prepared material of both species. Eherenberg probably overlooked it in living specimens of *N. ornata* because of its being obscured by the food vacuoles. This mechanism seems to serve as a support to the pharyngeal rods and also aids in drawing *Oscillatoria* filaments through the pharynx into the body of the animal.

Food vacuoles are numerous and vary in number and color with the amount of food injected and the stage of digestion of this food. A freshly fed *Nassula* contains so many food vacuoles of such dark color that the other morphological details cannot be made out with certainty. Just after injection of food the vacuoles are brown or dark green due to the color of the *Oscillatoria*, but as digestion proceeds they are changed to a shade of purple, then pink and finally faint straw color. All these stages may be encountered at one time in the same individual.

The contractile vacuole, of which there is but one, is peculiar. It is stationary and is the point toward which the streaming of the protoplasm is directed. As metabolism ensues minute vacuoles of clear fluid are formed throughout the protoplasm. With the streaming of the protoplasm these vacuoles are brought

into close contact with the point at which the contractile vacuole is formed. As the minute vacuoles come together they fuse to form a larger vacuole, which, when its maximum size is reached, is discharged. Thus there can always be seen a larger contractile vacuole with smaller vacuoles of various sizes surrounding it, while others are drifting through the cytoplasm toward it. At the point of excretion is situated a wedge-shaped pore connecting the contractile vacuole with the outside of the animal, and through which the waste material passes. Waste material is discharged at the rate of about eighty seconds.

Nassula thrives only on *Oscillatoria*. Although I have observed *Nassula* containing a few desmids, I have never been able to maintain a culture using desmids as food. *Nassula* divides by transverse fission. The nuclear conditions during division have not yet been completely worked out but work is being done at the present time on this subject. Binary fission is found to occur more frequently in older cultures.

2. NO WARRANT FOR TWO SPECIES.

The amount of food present plays a great part in the life history of *Nassula*. As long as there is an abundance of *Oscillatoria* the animals, which were classified as *N. ornata* by Eherenberg, live and multiply in the normal way and continue to present the color, size and contour of *N. ornata*. But as the food supply becomes exhausted they undergo noticeable changes in these features. As stated above *N. ornata* is normally ovate or cylindrical, brown or dark green in color and about 200 micra long, but as the food supply diminishes the animal becomes very much smaller and is decidedly longer than it is wide. The color of the food vacuoles changes to a faint red. In this condition it meets all descriptions of *N. elegans*. If, when this stage is reached, *Oscillatoria* is fed to the animals, they immediately attach themselves to the filaments to feed. Several hours later they will be seen to contain numerous food vacuoles of very dark color and their normal size is again reached, now meeting Eherenberg's description of *N. ornata*. Thus, by withholding food, *N. ornata* may be made to assume the characteristics of *N. elegans*. Age of the culture also, as over against lack of food,

plays a small part in the converting of *N. ornata* into the so-called *N. elegans*. Older cultures of *N. ornata* change a short while before those in which the water is fresher. This will be seen by referring to Table I. Hence we find that *N. ornata* and *N. elegans* are but metabolic phases of a single species based upon nutritional and toxic conditions.

3. ENCYSTMENT.

As stated above, after food has been withheld from *N. ornata* the animals develop the characteristics of *N. elegans*. If now, food is again added to these specimens a reversal will occur and the animals will again appear as *N. ornata*. This may be carried on indefinitely making alternate sequences of the forms so long as food is withheld and added at the proper time and in the proper sequences. However, if no food is added, the animals eventually become much lighter in color than even *N. elegans*, becoming almost transparent. Then encystment takes place. Thus it happens that they enter the cysts as *N. elegans*, *N. ornata* has not been observed to encyst.

Age of the culture aids in encystment but is not the basic cause as will be seen from the following specific experiment:

Four cultures were started as follows: All the *Nassulas* being taken from the same culture which was a sub-culture of the original pure line.

Culture No. 1.—Water from a culture of *Nassulas* several weeks old was filtered and placed in a watch glass with approximately twenty-five *N. ornata*. No *Oscillatoria* was present.

Culture No. 2.—Fresh spring water, about twenty-five *N. ornata* and no *Oscillatoria*.

Culture No. 3.—Water from the same vessel as No. 1, about twenty-five *N. ornata* and an abundance of *Oscillatoria*.

Culture No. 4.—Fresh spring water, about twenty-five *N. ornata*, and an abundance of *Oscillatoria*.

All of the four cultures were kept in square watch glasses and these placed in a larger glass dish so that the external conditions were the same.

The cysts are formed along the sides of the vessel or in the detritus on the bottom of the vessel. They are spheroidal in

TABLE I.

Date.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
May 5th.....	<i>N. ornata</i>	<i>N. ornata</i>	<i>N. ornata</i>	<i>N. ornata</i>
May 6th.....	<i>N. elegans</i>	<i>N. elegans</i>	<i>N. ornata</i>	<i>N. ornata</i>
May 7th.....	<i>N. elegans</i> (a few cysts)	<i>N. elegans</i> (no cysts)	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)
May 8th.....	<i>N. elegans</i> (about $\frac{1}{2}$ cysts)	<i>N. elegans</i> (a few cysts)	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)
May 9th.....	All encysted	<i>N. elegans</i> (a few cysts)	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)
May 10th.....	All encysted	<i>N. elegans</i> (about $\frac{1}{2}$ cysts)	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)
May 11th.....	All encysted	All encysted	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)	<i>N. ornata</i> (no cysts)

shape, brown and the wall is rather thick, presenting a scalloped appearance. They are a great deal smaller than the normal animals and in a newly formed cyst a light spot, the nucleus can be seen.

Excystment can be brought about by the addition of fresh water and *Oscillatoria*. After excystment the animal has the characteristics of *N. elegans* until it encounters food. A few hours after feeding it again presents the characteristics of *N. ornata*.

4. CONJUGATION.

In old cultures low in food supply, in which because of their age and food scarcity, encystment might be expected, conjugation has been encountered. Conjugation has only been observed under such conditions and always occurring after the animals have undergone the change from *N. ornata* to *N. elegans*. Thus, these adverse conditions of the culture seem to play the greatest rôle in conjugation.

The animals approach each other and fuse end to end. The nuclear stages during conjugation have not yet been worked out, but observations of living specimens as well as prepared materials show that the nucleus is not broken down in the process. Calkins (26) states that in many of the protozoa which have been thought to possess a single nucleus, there are in reality both micro- and macro-nuclei. These two nuclei are so closely associated that the micro-nucleus is not visible until conjugation takes place. I am convinced that this is not the case in *Nassula*, for during conjugation of protozoa where there are both types of nuclei, the macro-nucleus breaks down and the micro-nucleus takes the active part. In *Nassula*, as stated above, there is no such process, the conspicuous nucleus, which according to Calkins statement would be the macro-nucleus, functioning as does a micro-nucleus during conjugation.

Many thanks are due Dr. W. A. Kepner of this Laboratory, for his valuable suggestions and aid in carrying on this work, and Miss Margaret Haase for the drawing.

SUMMARY.

1. *Nassula ornata* and *Nassula elegans* represent not two species, but two metabolic stages of a single species.

2. The well nourished phase, known as *Nassula ornata*, does not encyst. Lack of food, first, converts *Nassula ornata* into *Nassula elegans*, and, in time, drives the forms as *Nassula elegans* into encystment.

3. Binary fission occurs more frequently in the poorly fed forms (*Nassula elegans*) than in the well-nourished forms (*Nassula ornata*).

4. There is but one nucleus in this ciliate, there being no differentiation of the nuclear complex into micro- and macro-nuclei.

5. Conjugation involving this single nucleus takes place in stocks that have aged.

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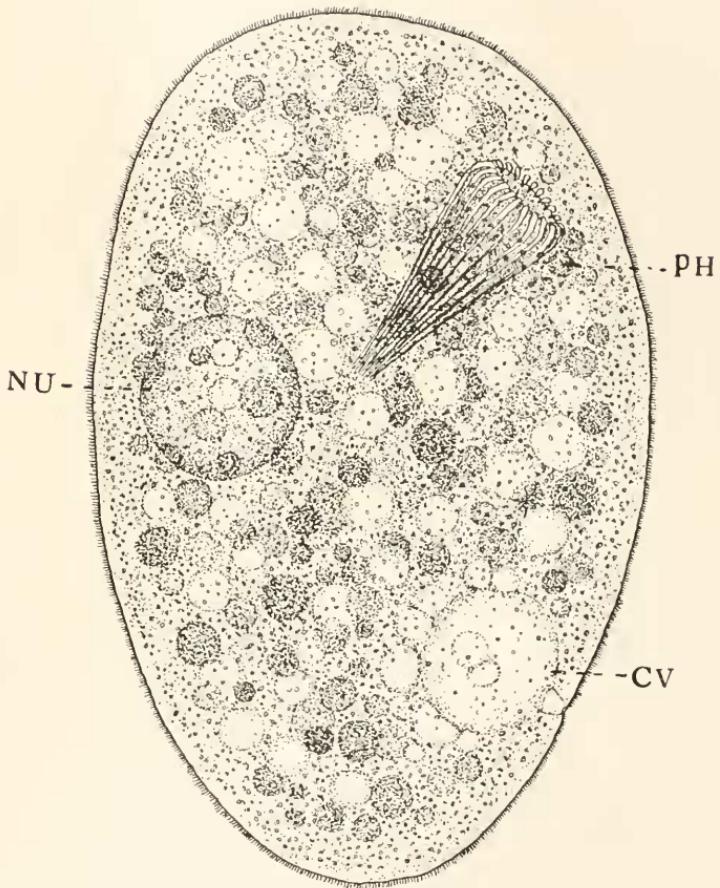
'00 Einfachste Lebensformen.

4. Pritchard, A.

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DESCRIPTION OF PLATE.

Right aspect of *Nassula* in the intermediate phase, *i.e.*, a *Nassula elegans* not yet sufficiently nourished to assume the larger, spheroidal contour of *Nassula ornata*. *PH*, pharynx; *NU*, nucleus; *CV*, contractile vacuole. $\times 250$.



EDNA MACNALLY.

THE MORPHOLOGY OF THE COPULATORY STRUCTURES IN SOME CASES OF GYNANDROMORPHISM IN LEPIDOPTERA.

N. J. KUSNEZOV.

In spite of many excellent investigations on the gynandromorphism in Lepidoptera (Goldschmidt, 1914-1923; Cockayne, 1915, 1916; Meisenheimer, 1921; Morgan and Bridges, 1919; Poppelbaum, 1909, 1913; Gerould, 1925) and some ingenious speculations about its causes and origin, the perplexing phenomena of intersexuality and gynandromorphism are still far from being sufficiently elucidated. One may say that we now possess many facts, a good many hypotheses and visual schemes, but few experiments (Kosminsky, 1924) and a great lack of physiological interpretation, confined exclusively to the theory of sexual hormones.

Moreover, the facts, so numerous in this order of insects, are described insufficiently and based mostly on the superficial inspection of the external features, like the structure and pigmentation of wings and the structure of antennæ. The sexual organs have been examined in a few cases only. But the question of the correlation of these superficial, secondary sexual characters with the primary reproductive system is, of course, of very great interest.

In my previous paper¹ on this subject I have had occasion to describe in full the genital or copulatory apparatus of seven gynandrous individuals (*Pieris rapæ* L., *Gonopteryx rhamni* L., *Dendrolimus pini* L., *Pygæra timon* Hb. and three *Porthetria dispar* L.), halved or mosaic, and I came to the conclusion that "there is evident a considerable independence, in existence and evolution, of different structures of the sexual sphere in the Lepidoptera; this independence is most sharply defined between the gonads (primary) and the secondary (tertiary and so on) systems; but,

¹ Kusnezov, N. J., "Contributions to the Morphology of the Genital Apparatus in Lepidoptera. Some Cases of Gynandromorphism," *Revue Russe d'Entomologie*, XVI., 1916, pp. 151-191.

on the other hand, the existence of a connecting influence between the secondary (copulatory) and tertiary (pigmentation, markings, etc.) sexual characters is also indisputable (cases of gynandromorphism)."

The task of my present article¹ is to contribute further data regarding the dependencies and correlations between the copulatory organs and external sexual characters in lepidopterous gynandromorphs. I have had for examination five gynandrous specimens, all typically halved, viz., of *Argynnис paphia* L., *Gonopteryx rhamni* L., *Bupalus piniarius* L., *Malacosoma neustria* L., and *Lycæna argus* L., preserved dry and pinned.

I am indebted for this interesting material to the generosity of Messrs. A. P. Tshernyshev (Kaluga), A. I. Iljinskij (Kaluga), A. M. Djakonov (St. Petersburg) and V. J. Fridolin (St. Petersburg) who most kindly put it at my disposal.

Argynnис paphia L.—Wings: typical male on the right, valesina-female on the left. Left labial palpus female in shape and color. (Legs broken off.) Hairs on the thorax and abdomen fulvous or male on the right, and greenish-gray or female on the left side of the body. No observable differences in the antennæ. Captured at Kaluga.

Copulatory Apparatus (Figs. 2 and 3).² Nearly perfectly male. Valvæ, with their harpæ in the form of two hooked processes, as well as the processus superior and inferior and so-called crista obliqua, have nearly the same shape and size as in the normal male (Fig. 1). The differences seen in preparations, like the incisions and emarginations on the valvæ and the length of the processus inferior, or the size of the penis, are quite unimportant and lie within the limits of individual variability. The main abnormality in the copulatory apparatus of this specimen is confined to the tegumen, *i.e.*, to the complex of the 9th and 10th tergites fused together, and to the uncus, the dorsal appendage of the latter segment. The right side of the tegumen (Fig. 3, *tg. 10 ♂*) is weaker and less developed in comparison with that of

¹ Read at the December meeting of the Russian Entomological Society in 1925.

² In the description of the genital armature I use the terminology elaborated by myself in my introduction to the study of Lepidoptera (Kusnezov, N. J., "Faune de la Russie. Lépidoptères. Introduction," Vol. I., 1915, published by the Russian Academy of Sciences).

the normal (Fig. 1, *teg.*), and, in particular, its uncus is small, reduced and deprived of the processes which adorn its dorsal

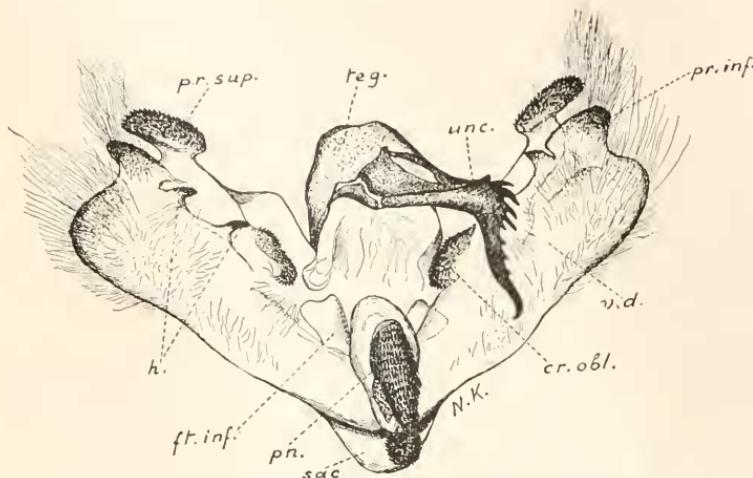


FIG. 1. Copulatory apparatus of the normal male of *Argynnis paphia* L.: *teg.*, tegumen; *unc.*, uncus; *pr. sup.*, processus superior valvae of Petersen (cercina of Fruhstorfer); *pr. inf.*, processus inferior valvae of Petersen; *h.*, harpæ (clinopus of Fruhstorfer); *ft. inf.*, fultura inferior; *pn.*, penis; *sac.*, saccus; *cr. obl.*, crista obliqua of Petersen; *v. d.*, valva dextra.—Zeiss, obj. a₃, oc. I.

surface and have the form of a cock's comb. Moreover, this uncoid is situated asymmetrically, being clearly displaced to the right side. In one word, this uncoid appears to be a right half

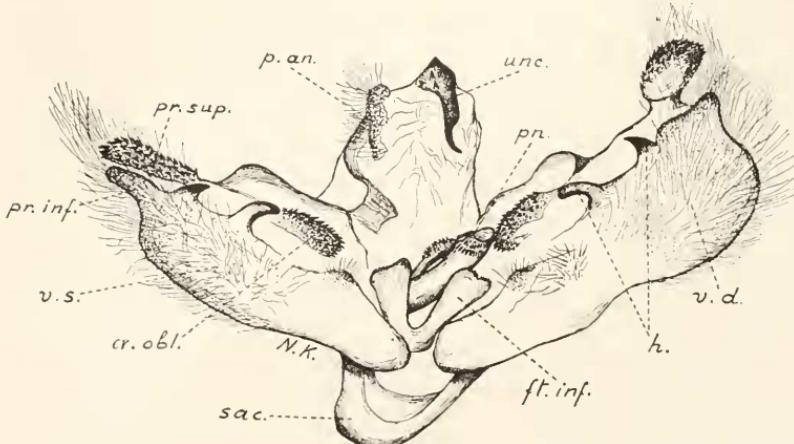


FIG. 2. Copulatory apparatus of the gynandromorphous *Argynnis paphia* L.: *p. an.*, papilla analis; *unc.*, uncus; *pn.*, penis; *v. d.*, valva dextra; *v. s.*, valva sinistra; *h.*, harpæ; *ft. inf.*, fultura inferior; *sac.*, saccus; *cr. obl.*, crista obliqua; *pr. inf.*, processus inferior; *pr. sup.*, processus superior valvae of Petersen.—Zeiss, obj. a₃, oc. I.

only of the normal uncus. On the left side of the tegumen an elongate hairy prominence is situated, which, without hesitation, should be identified as the left papilla analis of the female (Fig. 2, *p. a.*). Lastly, on the pleural regions of the 8th and 9th abdominal segments there are some deformities rather exactly reproducing the pleural portions of the female abdominal segments (Fig. 3, *pl. 7 ♀* and *pl. + st. 7 ♀*).

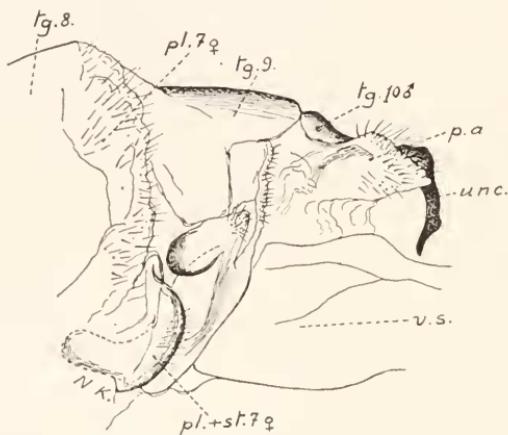


FIG. 3. Copulatory apparatus of the gynandrous *Argynnis paphia* L., side view: *tg. 8*, 8th tergite; *pl. 7 ♀*, 7th pleurite of the female; *tg. 9*, 9th tergite; *tg. 10 ♂*, 10th tergite of the male; *p. a.*, papilla analis; *unc.*, uncoid; *v. s.*, valva sinistra; *pl. + st. 7 ♀*, 7th pleurite and sternite of the female fused together.—Zeiss, obj. a., oc. I.

Thus, in this case, the structural and pigmental female characters of the wings, labial palpi and hair clothing show a correspondence with the copulatory apparatus on the same side of the body. In other terms, the tertiary sexual characters (structure and pigmentation of the wings and palpi) are strongly divided and separated by the symmetry plane, while the secondary ones (copulatory structures) are to some extent independent of this plane. Further, the male genital structures are markedly dominant and the female ones repressed.

Gonopteryx rhamni L.—Wings: female on the left, male on the right. (Antennae broken off.) Both labial palpi yellow. No differences in the legs. Captured in the region under the Kaluga government.

Copulatory Apparatus (Fig. 4).—Valvae, penis, with its vallum (Fig. 4, *v. p.*), as well as the saccus (Fig. 4, *sac.*) nearly normal.

Tegumen and uncus absent, and replaced by a pair of rather normal double papillæ anales of the female. Moreover, the bursa copulatrix, with its appendix (Fig. 4, *b. c.* and *a. b.*) and the lamina

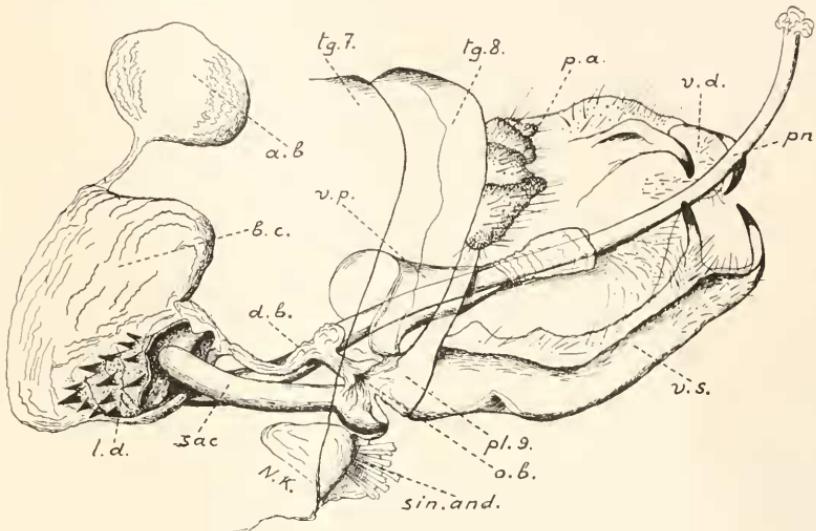


FIG. 4. Copulatory apparatus of the gynandromorphous *Gonopteryx rhamni* L.: *tg. 7.* and *tg. 8.*, 7th and 8th tergites; *p. a.*, papillæ anales; *v. d.* and *v. s.*, valva dextra and sinistra; *pn.*, penis; *pl. 9.*, pleurite of the 9th segment; *o. b.*, ostium bursæ; *sin. and.*, sinus androconialis; *sac.*, saccus; *l. d.*, lamina dentata; *b. c.*, bursa copulatrix; *a. b.*, appendix bursæ; *d. b.*, ductus bursæ; *v. p.*, vallum penis.—Zeiss, obj. AA, oc. I.

dentata (*l. d.*), are well developed and provided with a ductus bursæ which opens in the ostium bursæ (*o. b.*) lying normally, between the 7th and 8th sternites, but immediately on the left of the invagination of the saccus. Below this latter an androconial pouch (Fig. 4, *sin. and.*) is situated, representing in miniature the much larger structure of this kind in the normal female.

Thus, in this case we find in the structure of the copulatory apparatus no correspondence with the disposition of the wing pigments. The latter, male and female, are strongly divided and separated by the plane of bilateral symmetry, while the copulatory appendages are divided rather by a frontal plane, the female papillæ lying above, and male penis, saccus and valvæ below it. But at the same time the internal reproductive organs, the bursa copulatrix of the female with its appendages and, probably, the ductus ejaculatorius of the male exist side by side, with their openings in normal position.

Malacosoma neustria L.—Wings: female on the left, male on the right. Antennæ: right male, left female. Specimen captured in the region under the Kaluga government.

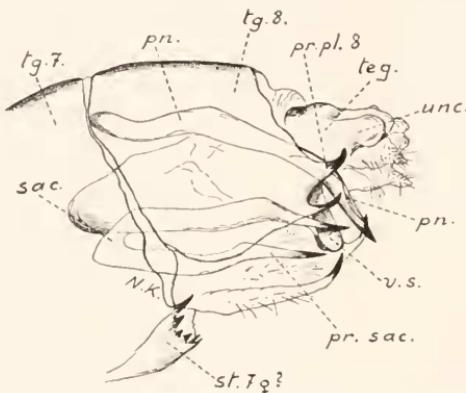


FIG. 5. Copulatory apparatus of the gynandrous *Malacosoma neustria* L., lateral view: *tg. 7.* and *tg. 8.*, 7th and 8th tergites; *pn.*, penis; *pr. pl. 8.*, processus of the 8th pleurite; *teg.*, tegumen; *unc.*, uncus; *v. s.*, valva sinistra; *pr. sac.*, processus sacci; *st. 7 ♀?*, 7th sternite of the female (probably); *sac.*, saccus.—Zeiss, obj. AA, oc. I.

Copulatory Apparatus (Figs. 5 and 6).—Almost normal male, except the hind margin of the 7th abdominal sternite which bears slightly stronger indentations than those in the normal male. The female structures absent.

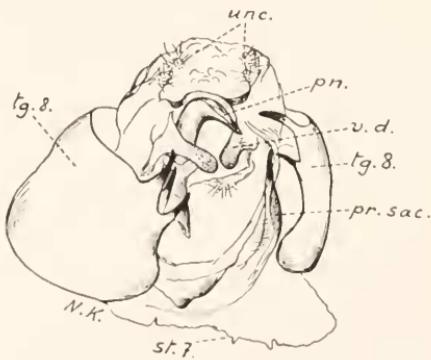


FIG. 6. Copulatory apparatus of the gynandrous *Malacosoma neustria* L., ventral view; abbreviations the same as in Fig. 5.—Zeiss, obj. AA, oc. I.

Thus, in this case, the pigmental and structural sexual differentiations of the wings and structural sexual features of the antennæ, strongly divided by the plane of bilateral symmetry, do not correspond with the differentiation of the genital armature.

Bupalus piniarius L.—Wings: left fore wing ill-developed, curled; left hind wing not developed and rudimentary; on the

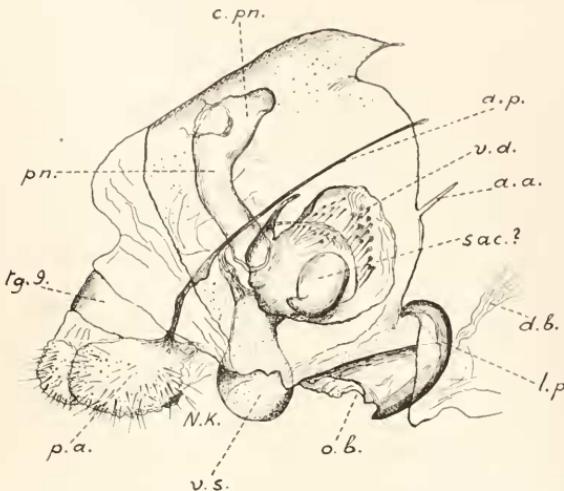


FIG. 7. Copulatory apparatus of the gynandrous *Bupalus piniarius* L., right side view: *c. pn.*, cœcum penis; *a. p.*, apophyses posteriores; *v. d.* and *v. s.*, right and left valvoids; *a. a.*, apophyses anteriores; *sac.?*, saccus (probably); *d. b.*, ductus bursæ; *l. p.*, lamella postvaginalis; *o. b.*, ostium bursæ; *p. a.*, papillæ anales; *tg. 9.*, 9th tergite; *pn.*, penis.—Zeiss, obj. AA, oc. 2.

right side the fore and hind wings normally developed. Color of all wings pale yellowish, more feminine than that of the yellowish forms of males; but, as far as appearances go, wings on both sides

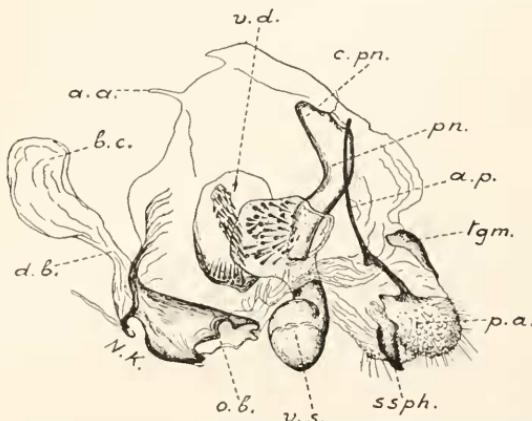


FIG. 8. Copulatory apparatus of the gynandrous *Bupalus piniarius* L., left side view: *v. d.* and *v. s.*, right and left valvoids; *c. pn.*, cœcum penis; *pn.*, penis; *a. p.*, apophyses posteriores; *tgm.*, tegumen; *p. a.*, papillæ anales; *ssph.*, subscaphium; *o. b.*, ostium bursæ; *d. b.*, ductus bursæ; *b. c.*, bursa copulatrix; *a. a.*, apophyses anteriores.—Zeiss, obj. AA, oc. I.

are uniform in color and markings. Antennæ: left bipectinated, male; right filiform, female. Bred specimen, emerged at St. Petersburg January 27, 1901.

Copulatory Apparatus (Figs. 7 and 8).—8th and 9th segments female, with nearly normal apophyses anteriores and posteriores (Figs. 7 and 8, *a. a.* and *a. p.*). Papillæ anales well developed, symmetrical. Ostium bursæ quite normal, strongly chitinized. Bursa copulatrix normal, but lamella antevaginalis absent, the postvaginalis in the form of a chitinous band (Fig. 7, *l. p.*). On the other hand, there is a penis, with its coccum (Fig. 7, *c. pn.*), rather well developed and lying inside of the body cavity, but capable of being protruded through a very narrow orifice in the diaphragm. Uncus absent. Rudiments of tegumen in the form of a more strongly chitinized left portion of the 9th tergite (Fig. 8, *tgm.*). A well-developed left portion of the subscaphium (Fig. 8, *ssph.*) lying below the left papilla analis. As to the valvæ, they are both present, but deformed, lying within the body cavity and protruding only partially outside (Figs. 8 and 9, *v. s.* and *v. d.*). Lastly, an oviform structure lying freely in the body cavity on the external surface of the right valvoid (Fig. 7, *sac.?*) may be regarded as a rudiment of the saccus.

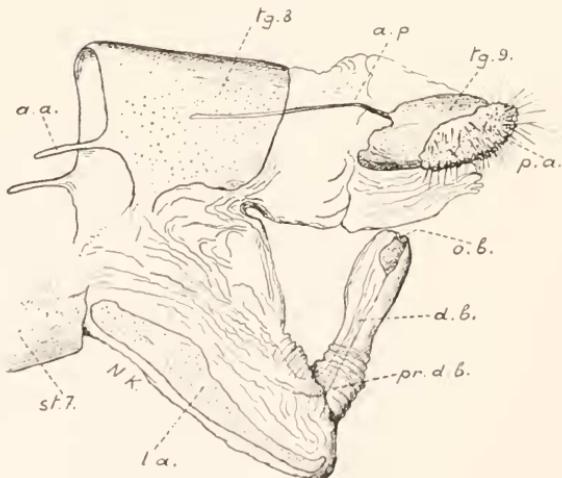


FIG. 9. Copulatory apparatus of the normal female of *Lycaena argus* L.: *tg. 8.* and *tg. 9.*, 8th and 9th tergites; *a. p.*, apophyses posteriores; *p. a.*, papillæ anales; *o. b.*, ostium bursæ; *d. b.*, ductus bursæ; *pr. d. b.*, processus ductus bursæ; *l. a.*, lamella antevaginalis; *st. 7.*, 7th sternite; *a. a.*, apophyses anteriores.—Zeiss, obj. AA, oc. I.

Thus, in this case almost all male and female genital structures, except the male uncus, coexist, though the male ones are deformed; they are disposed, with the exception of the rudimentary subscaphium, on both sides of the plane of bilateral symmetry. This case is similar to that of the *G. rhamni* L. in the respect that here also the paired female papillæ and the paired male valvæ are divided from one another by the frontal plane.

Lycæna argus L. (*ægon* Schiff.).¹—Wings: male on the left and female on the right. Antennæ uniform. Both fore legs with female tarsus.

Copulatory apparatus (Fig. 10) predominantly female. Tergite and sternite of the 8th segment nearly normal except for the distal angles of the tergite being obtusely shortened. 10th tergite

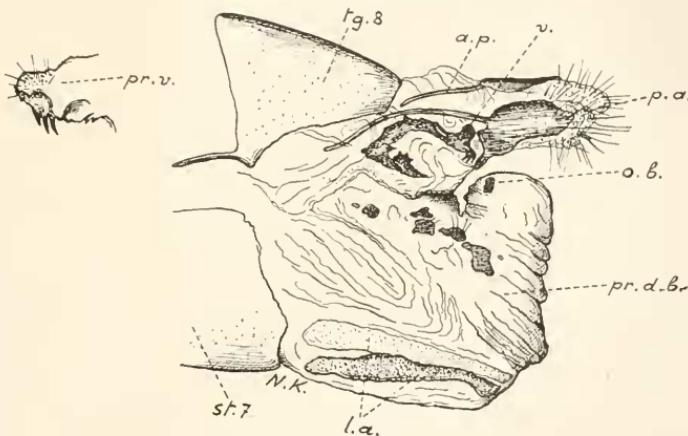


FIG. 10. Copulatory apparatus of the gynandromorph *Lycaena argus* L.: *v.*, valvoid; *pr. v.*, processus valvæ of the normal male; other abbreviations as in Fig. 9.—Zeiss, obj. AA, oc. I.

split on its dorsal surface. Apophyses anteriores and posteriores, as well as papillæ anales, normal. Membranous tube (Fig. 10, *pr. d. b.*) bearing on its tip the ostium bursæ, developed, but about three times stouter than normal. A pair of lamellæ antevaginales a little wider and shorter than normal ones. Ostium bursæ present, its ductus indistinct. Bursa copulatrix bag-like, long, plicated, nearly normal. A deformed, strongly chitinized, plate lying in the body cavity between the 8th and 9th tergites may be considered as male valvoid, because on its distal extremity it

¹ Species with claws on the fore tibiae.

bears a process having three teeth quite similar to those on the tips of the normal valva (Fig. 10, *pr. v.*). Under this valvoid there are some minute sclerites disseminated over the intersegmental membrane of the tube of the ductus bursæ. From their consistence and structure they also may be considered as crushed rudiments of the male valva.

Thus, in this case we observe a predominance of female characters in the form of both fore tarsi and almost all parts of the copulatory apparatus which are but slightly deformed. Male features, represented only by rudiments of valvæ, are nevertheless situated on the same side of the plane of bilateral symmetry as the male wings.

In all described gynandrous individuals, however similar in their external appearance which is that of common halved gynandromorphs, quite different interrelations in the degree of development and disposition between the secondary and tertiary¹ sexual structures are observed. My present observations, as well as previous (1916), mentioned above, permit me, I think, to draw the following conclusions.

The division of the tertiary sexual structures into two halves by the plane of bilateral symmetry may be associated:

- (1) With a division of the paired copulatory structures by this plane into two pretty normal halves, the unpaired organs, like penis, bursa and their ostia being developed nearly normally; the case of *Pieris rapæ* L.;
- (2) With a more or less complete unisexuality of the genital structures: male, as in my cases of *Malacosoma neustria* L. (complete unisexuality) and *Dendrolimus pini* L., or female, as in *Lycæna argus* L.;
- (3) With an intermediate position, where the structures of one sex are intermingled with those of the opposite sex on both sides of the body; these are the cases of *Pygæra timon* Hbn., *Bupalus piniarius* L., *Gonopteryx rhamni* L., one sex being rather more strongly developed than the other;
- (4) With a division of the paired copulatory organs in respect to a frontal plane of the body, with the presence of the unpaired

¹ Under the term of secondary sexual structures is meant the copulatory organs or genitalia, under that of tertiary the locomotor apparatus, pigments, sense organs and their accessories.

ones in a rather normal state; these are the cases of *Bupalus piniarius* L. and *Gonopteryx rhamni* L.

No case of purely crossed gynandromorph, *i.e.*, having the tertiary characters of a given sex situated precisely on the sexually opposite side of the body, has been, as far as I know, yet observed.

It is doubtful whether attempts to elucidate these various combinations by referring to their connection with the geometrical planes of the organism will have any success. The plane of bilateral symmetry, as is true of each other plane of the body, is by no means a real physiological factor; and physiology has nothing to do with these abstract morphological concepts. Very possibly, in general, no architectonic rules are followed by the developing organism. That is why the chimaera hypotheses fail also totally in their attempts to explain the confusion observed in the distribution of the secondary genital rudiments in certain gynandromorphs. Far more probable is the explanation (Morgan 1922) of these irregularities by a simple anatomical shifting of the diversely determined body cells during the embryonic development. So is also the hypothesis of the precocious development of one sex tissue in comparison with the other, growing across the plane of bilateral symmetry and encroaching upon another half differently determined (Gerould, 1925; partly Goldschmidt). The cellular and blastomeric hypotheses (Boveri, 1888, 1902, 1915; Lang, 1912; Cockayne, 1915) fail also to explain the multitude of facts when the body planes are nearly never maintained but are in different ways transgressed. Lastly, it is a rather discordant fact for the hypothesis of polyspermy (Morgan, 1905, 1909) that only a quite insignificant number of cases of the plurality of the same organ have ever been observed.¹ The generally accepted hormonal theory of the chemical stimulation also meets great difficulties in the explanation of asymmetrical, halved, gynandromorphism connected with the body planes.

My opinion is that the phenomena of the "irregular" spacial distribution of sexually determined parts of the body should be interpreted as cases of organic regulation (in the sense of Driesch)

¹ Those described by Goldschmidt (1921) need further examination. A "super-numerary" right valva described by Gerould (1925), more than possibly, will prove to be but a deformed portion of the right valva.

in which the "normal" conditions are altered in the gynandrous embryo by the interruption of the normal chemical stimulation of somatic cells which have already obtained their sexual determination.

It is a custom to unite all sexual structures, other than gonads, under a general term of "somatic" structures and to subordinate them to the hormones of the gonads. But (1) for insects this subordination is yet to be proved (Oudemans, 1898; Meisenheimer, 1909; Kellogg, 1904; Kopeč, 1908-1913); and (2) it is evident that the somatic sexual structures are to be classed among several rather independent groups, each group being influenced by its own regulating factor, or, perhaps, possessing its own determination (Abderhalden, 1911). The idea of a sexual determination preexisting in all somatic cells grows more and more acceptable.

But, on the other hand, the division of the reproductive system into primary, secondary organs, and so on, can be admitted only theoretically. Physiologically speaking this system is a unity. Perhaps, we should not speak, therefore, of dependencies of one group upon another, but only of the degrees observed in the display of the whole system in its parts collectively or individually. And, it may be, the sexual chemical factors, though different in their manifestations, are in reality the same, differing only quantitatively.

ZOOLOGICAL MUSEUM OF THE
RUSSIAN ACADEMY OF SCIENCES,
May 18, 1926.

A NOTE ON THE OCCURRENCE AND HABITS OF A
LUMINOUS SQUID (*ABRALIA VERANYI*)
AT MADEIRA.

S. STILLMAN BERRY,
REDLANDS, CALIFORNIA.

Originally made known in very incomplete fashion (vide Rüppell, 1844) from individuals taken in the neighborhood of Messina, our knowledge of this extremely interesting species of squid is based on the information gleaned from the very limited number of specimens which have now and then fallen into the hands of students of the group, principally systematists, since that time. These specimens have been entirely Mediterranean in origin, the majority of them, like the type, from Messina, but a few from Nice, Toulon, and so on. Until quite lately it has happened that almost every captured specimen has found its way into the collections of one or another of the German museums. It has therefore somewhat curiously come about that whereas neither Gray three quarters of a century ago, nor Tryon, nor even Hoyle seem to have had any actual material of the species to work upon, Pfeffer's recourse to the Hamburg and other German collections, especially that at Leipzig, yielded him no less than fifteen specimens (Pfeffer, '12, p. 136). More recently some further specimens, likewise taken at Messina, have been the subject of a short but beautiful memoir by Dr. Silvia Mortara ('22) on the histology of the photophores. Practically the whole of our real knowledge regarding *Abralia veranyi*, from whatever aspect, is to be found in this paper, and in the monograph of Pfeffer, although there is some information to be had from an older paper by Steenstrup ('80) and another by Joubin ('95), where the luminous organs of some specimens from Nice which are probably referable to this species are described under the name *Abralia Oweni*.

It is of interest to remember that of the seven described species of *Abralia*, *A. veranyi* as at present understood is the only

occidental one. One species comes from the Red Sea. The remainder are all Indo-Pacific, two of them being Hawaiian. From the waters of the western hemisphere, even in what would seem entirely appropriate latitudes, the genus is as yet unknown. Thus from the entire Atlantic beyond the gates of the Mediterranean no member of the genus has been reported hitherto.

Furthermore in regard to the behavior of the animal in life or concerning even so much as its appearance at the time of capture I have been able to discover no published information in as nearly an exhaustive search as has been possible to me. What we know or think we know of the natural history of this interesting animal is almost entirely inferential or presumptive.

In view of the situation outlined it is therefore a matter of no small satisfaction to be able to report not alone a considerable and important extension of the known geographic range of this genus and species, but to record a few observations made by the captors of the specimens, which throw a certain light on the habits of the animal, are a welcome contribution after the nearly blank record of the past eighty years, and are themselves withhold full of lively interest. For this my acknowledgment is due to the gentlemen to be indicated, as well as to others later mentioned in the course of this paper.

When Professor T. D. A. Cockerell of the University of Colorado returned to the United States from his Madeiran trip in 1921, he brought with him various specimens of invertebrates, among them as by no means the least of the treasures, three small squids. These he generously turned over to me, with the word that they were given him by Senhor A. C. de Noronha of Funchal. The bottle containing them bore the following label in Sr. de Noronha's hand: "Luminous. Caught during the night near the shore rocks. Funchal. June 19, 1917." The three specimens proved to include a beautifully preserved male and two females of the rare Mediterranean enoplateuthid referred to in our preface, *Abrolia veranyi*. Through the kindness of Dr. Silvia Mortara I have also been the fortunate recipient of one of her precious Messina specimens, captured in November, 1921. A direct comparison of the Funchal form with authentic Mediterranean material has therefore been made possible.

The principal references covering this species in the literature are given below. Those who desire a more complete synonymy are referred to Pfeffer, '12.

- Abralia veranyi (Rüppell, 1844).
- (Dates of more important references italicized.)
1844. *Enoplateuthis Verany* Rüppell.—Giorn. Gab. Messina, 26, p. 3, f. 2.
1851. *Enoplateuthis Veranyi* Vérany.—Céph. médit., p. 83, pl. 30, f. b.
1879. *Enoplateuthis Veranyi* Tryon.—Man. Conch. (1), v. 1, p. 173, pl. 76, f. 318-319 (after Vérany).
1880. *Abralia veranii* and *Veranyi* Steenstrup.—Overs. K. D. Vid. Selsk. Forh. 1880, p. 92, 110 [22, 40], pl. 3, f. 2-6.
1886. *Abralia veranyi* Hoyle.—Ceph. Challenger Exp., p. 38, 217 (merely catalogued).
1895. *Abralia Oweni* Joubin.—Mém. Soc. Zoöl. France, v. 8, p. 220 [9], f. 6-11 (photogenic organs).
1899. *Abralia Veranyi* and *Enoplateuthis Verany* "Rüppel" Ficalbi.—Monit. Zoöl. Ital., v. 10, p. 80-82, text f. 2 (after Rüppell).
1900. *Abralia armata* (pars) Pfeffer.—Synops. œgops. Ceph., p. 167.
1900. *Asteroteuthis veranyi* Pfeffer.—Teuthol. Bemerk., p. 289.
1912. *Asteroteuthis Veranyi* Pfeffer.—Monogr. œgops., p. 129, 785, 794, pl. 16.
1912. *Abralia Veranyi* Pfeffer.—*id.*, p. 785, 794.
1922. *Abralia veranyi* Mortara.—R. Com. Talass. Ital., Mem. 95, p. 1-20, text f. 1-2, pl. (photogenic organs).

A careful comparison of the Madeiran specimens with that from Messina and with the lengthy account given by Pfeffer has brought to light no points of difference thought to be in any respect essential from the taxonomic standpoint. As will be seen from the appended table of measurements, the dimensions of the Madeiran examples are as a rule well in excess of those of the individual from Messina, but this is very decidedly more true of the two females than of the single male and may possibly prove to be, in part at least, a secondary attribute of sex. The wider,

more flaring mantle possessed by all three Madeiran examples is doubtless but an incident of the mechanics of their preservation. The same is doubtless true of the apparent great number of chromatophores resulting in the consequent darker color of these specimens. The greater conspicuousness of the chromatophores seems to carry a concomitant accentuation of the photophores so that at first sight they appear much more numerous than in the Messina specimen. The attempt to count the photophores in corresponding areas, however, has not led to proof of any actual critical difference in their number.

The male indeed does show a few slight differences in the structure of its beautifully preserved hectocotylus, especially in the fact that the tip of the modified arm is so produced and attenuated beyond the curious fleshy folds which are a feature of the distal part of this arm in the present species, and regarding the exact function of which we are still quite in the dark except that there seems good reason to believe that they may serve in some fashion or other in the manipulation and fixation of the spermatophores.

This male and one of the females show but three hooks on each tentacle club. The other female has three hooks and a possible remnant of a more minute proximal one on the left club, while the right club bears four hooks in agreement with both clubs of the Messina specimen. These seem but normal variations. I have noticed no record of any specimens with clubs bearing less than two nor more than four hooks.

A certain degree of sexual dimorphism is, as already noted, indicated by the present specimens, but it is not conspicuous, being chiefly manifested by the somewhat smaller body and fins of the male. The differences noted appear both absolute and relative. The fins are almost equally wide in proportion to mantle length in both males and females, but in the former they are relatively somewhat shorter, giving an index of about 60 as against 66 in the females. The arms of the male on the other hand are somewhat longer in relation to the body than those of the female.

As was discovered by Steenstrup ('80, p. 110), the spermatophores become attached in a rosette-like cluster to the inner

surface of the mantle of the female, this being in the median line just back of the nuchal cartilage. These clusters are very conspicuous in both of the females before me, but there is present in each of them in addition to the principal rosette, a much smaller cluster of 4 to 8 spermatophores or remains of the same adhering to the visceral mass at its mesial junction with the collar, a position not quite opposite to that occupied by the main rosette, but more anterior. Possibly therefore this smaller cluster is to be regarded as a fragment of the larger one, adhering here accidentally at the time of the emplacement of the latter. In both of these specimens the ovaries are swollen and packed with developing ova. Just how soon the ova would be ready for extrusion is at present problematic.

TABLE OF MEASUREMENTS.

Locality.....	Mes-sina.		Funchal.	
	♂	♂	♀	♀
Total length.....		mm.	mm.	mm.
Length of body, dorsal.....	110	115	120	130
Length of body, ventral.....	40	40	45	46
Tip of body to base of dorsal arms.....	38	37	41	43
Width of fin at widest point.....	54	52	61	60
Width of fin.....	14	17	17	18
Length of fin.....	23	24	30	30
Width across fins.....	33	37	38	42
Width of body.....	13	18	18	18
Depth of body.....	12	13	13	15
Width of head across eyes.....	15	12	11	14
Length of head (nuchal cartilage to base of dorsal arms). .	13	12	15	15
Length of funnel, median.....	9	9	8	10
Length of right dorsal arm.....	21	29	28	26
Length of left dorsal arm.....	23	30	28	26
Length of right second arm.....	25	35	33	31
Length of left second arm.....	27	34	33	30
Length of right third arm.....	24	33	31	31
Length of left third arm.....	25	32	32	28
Length of right ventral arm.....	29	32	32	29
Length of left ventral arm.....	29	32	32	29
Length of right tentacle.....	54	62	62	68
Length of right tentacle club.....	9	9	11	11
Length of left tentacle.....	55	63	59	69
Length of left tentacle club.....	10	9	9.5	11
Length of hectocotylized part of left ventral arm (taken from last hook to tip).....	8	10	—	—

The male shows a large spermatophore bundle in process of extrusion from Needham's sac and it may be added that the same observation is true of the male from Messina.

Upon writing to Senhor de Noronha and to Senhor Adão d'Abreu Nunes, to whom, I believe, belongs the credit for the actual capture of the specimens, these gentlemen courteously responded with notes of so great intrinsic interest that it seems desirable by means of a somewhat free translation to publish them in full, the more especially as direct observations on the luminosity of cephalopods in life under natural conditions are still of exceeding rarity.

The following excerpt is in free translation from a letter from Sr. de Noronha under date of November 13, 1921.

"In reading my notes, I find that the cephalopod was captured by a friend, a great fish enthusiast, toward midnight of the 19th of June, 1917, at the surface of the sea and in the artificial harbor of Pontinha, to the west of Funchal.

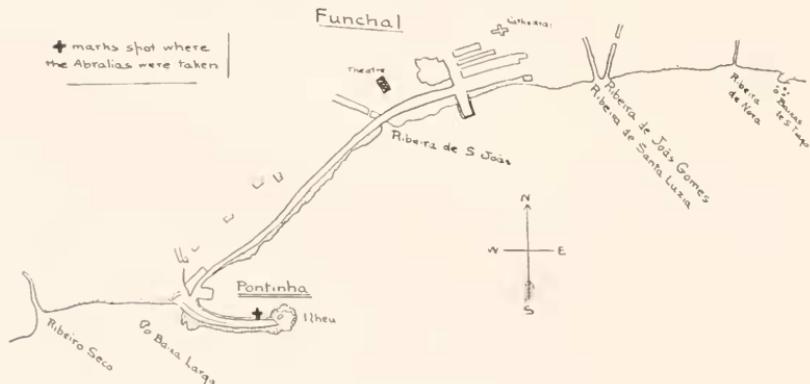


FIG. 1. Sketch map of the Bay of Funchal. The point of capture of the specimens of *Abralia veranyi* mentioned in the text is marked by a +.

"I was there on the quay myself that selfsame evening, and I was very happily able to record that the animal was luminous, the light being very vivid and of a lovely ultramarine blue. One saw 5 lights ('foyers'), disposed in an arc around the eye and on the lower region of this organ, 2 of these photophores being larger and 3 smaller. On the body, the head, and the arms there were many similar lights, which were more numerous on the ventral side. I also noticed that out of the water the animal was still very lively and tried to bite in its anger.

"From the jetty was perceived from time to time an indi-

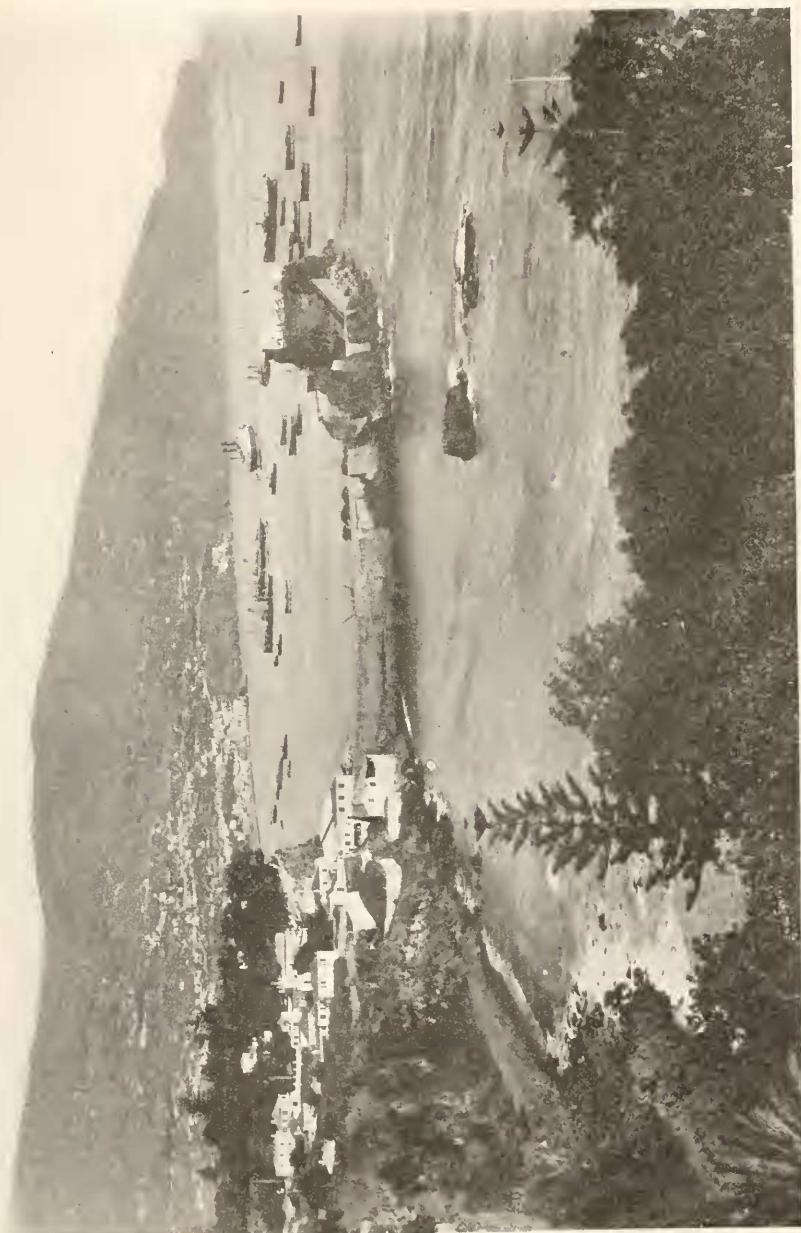


FIG. 2. The Bay of Funchal and harbor of Pontinha viewed from the west. (Photograph by M. O. Perestrello & Fos., Madeira.)

vidual which swam rapidly near the surface, giving out its phosphorescence, and then my friend from the top of the wall dexterously manipulated his long-handled 'peneiro' (dip-net). I obtained in this manner a dozen examples, and I could have had many more if I had had need of them. It was an evening warm and calm, and it seems to me that it is for this fine weather that the *Abralia* shows preference. At least it is in summer and autumn that the charming cephalopod arrives near the walls of the harbor of Pontinha. This locality is very sheltered, almost closed to currents and winds, and it is perhaps this circumstance which draws it to this nook of the shore, attracted furthermore by the lamp which illuminates the quay. Indeed, as I believe, this cephalopod has never been seen in the five less protected places on the south coast of Madeira, where, during the night, they drag the fish seines, and where it would be easy to capture them if they were there. I myself have investigated these places, but I have seen taken in the nets only the common cephalopods of Madeira: a *Loligo*, a *Sepia*, and a *Polypus*.

"I would also broach the opinion that the *Abralia veranyi* is an abyssal species which at night in summer migrates vertically and horizontally to attain the shore line, and by day betakes itself anew to the depths of the ocean."

Under date of February 1, 1922, Sr. Nunes wrote me further:

"The cephalopod in question has been captured by myself in the sheltered quay of this city of Funchal, called the Quay of Pontinha, during the months of July, August, and September.— Almost every year one may capture them in this harbor during the night where they approach the steps of debarkation, following the lighting of the electric lamps of the above-mentioned steps. With a certain alacrity one may catch them with the aid of a little wire basket, because these animals come almost to the surface of the water, being distinguishable by the brilliancy ('éclat') of a bluish phosphorescence which they cause to gleam from their eyes."

From these notes it would appear that the phenomena described are distinctly seasonal in character. This fact, the exceeding vigor and activity evinced by the animals when captured, and

finally my own observations on the physiological condition of both males and females, affords convincing evidence that the inshore nocturnal migration of the Madeiran *Abralia* is essentially of reproductive significance and has to do with either the mating or the spawning, or very possibly indeed with both. Such a conclusion finds the strongest possible confirmation in the detailed observations of Ishikawa ('13) and Sasaki ('14) on a somewhat nearly allied species of squid, *Watasesnia scintillans*, the famous Firefly Squid ("Hotaru-ika") of Japan. The parallel extends to still further particulars, but so little information of consequence concerning the habits and life histories of the smaller squids has accumulated that the Japanese observations are almost the only ones of any relevance to be found in the literature. Like the *Abralia*, *Watasesnia* "is a deep-sea animal, living during the day in a depth of 100 or more fathoms, and when the night is at hand, they approach to the coast, and after sunset they lay the eggs, and as soon as they finish their spawning, go back to the deep sea" (Sasaki, '14, p. 95). After the fixation of the spermatophores in the nape of the female (in quite a different position, as it would appear, from what is to be observed in *Abralia veranyi*), the male *Watasesnia* is thought to perish. The season of this extraordinary migration varies somewhat in different parts of the Japanese Empire, but in Toyama Bay on the west coast it is late April and May. Here the firefly squid comes inshore in such enormous numbers that their fishery is a considerable industry, the total catch being given by Sasaki as 1,000 tons. Due to the disappearance of mated males, nearly the entire catch seems to be comprised of females (one count given is 1 ♂ to 79 ♀ ♀). No juvenals are found with them, and only a small per cent. of those taken were found to have food in the stomach. A net drawn up at 9 or 10 P.M. is said to be better filled than one hauled in at 3 or 4 A.M., a circumstance which Sasaki suggests may be largely due to the fact that the schools swim in from the deep when sunset approaches, lay their eggs towards evening, and become entrapped in the nets on their way back. The fact that the *Abralia* is to be seen soon after the lights on the quay are illuminated may indicate that something of a nearly similar nature goes on here.

Sr. de Noronha's allusion to the enraged state of the animal

when captured is curiously in accord with the behaviour of *Watasesnia* at the height of its own (spring) migration, at which time Sasaki states that "they attacked us violently, biting our hands with their jaws." Such as the Japanese catch in late summer or autumn, on the other hand, are quiet and show little vitality.

From the relative emphasis laid upon the sources of the animal's illumination by both Madeiran observers, but especially by Nunes, it would seem that the ocular photophores of this *Abralia* irradiate a conspicuously brighter light than the more abundant organs of the body surface. This is very much what one would superficially expect from the general appearance of these organs in the dead animal. Turning again to the Japanese species we find that Ishikawa ('13, p. 168) likewise states that of the three types of photophores found in *Watasesnia scintillans*, at least two of which are entirely homologous with those of *Abralia veranyi*, the organs of the outer integument come last in the intensity of their light. Yet it must be remembered further that Sasaki, working more extendedly on the same species, was unable to make out any difference between the light of the ocular and that of the integumentary photophores. However this may be, the function of light production in both species would seem to be essentially the same. The brilliance of the display stressed by both Madeiran and Japanese observers, coinciding as it does in each case with the schooling habit, the nocturnal migration, and the period of sexual activity, is most readily interpreted as a mating phenomenon, at least in very large part. I do not mean by this that the sexes actually recognize one another's different nature by means of corresponding differences in the luminosity of male and female, although at the same time the possibility of such recognition should not be too quickly excluded from consideration merely because Sasaki, who inquired into this aspect of the question quite particularly, found himself entirely unable to distinguish the sexes merely by the light of the animals at night. For there is another important way in which the photogenic function could serve an animal behaving as *Abralia veranyi* does during the reproductive season, and that is by simply furnishing a visual method by which the schools can assemble or keep together

during the vicissitudes of migration. If this be supplemented either by slight visible sex differences, or by some chemical or other means of inter-attraction, such an arrangement might be sufficiently adequate to insure the maintenance of the species. Further field observations with this point in mind would doubtless yield some valuable and entertaining information.

At first thought it seems passing strange that so conspicuous a phenomenon has not been observed more commonly. However, for the occurrence of species possessing such habits at stations convenient for observation near the shore there would seem to be required not alone shelter from heavy waves but an abrupt slope from the shore-line to the 100-fathom mark so that the contingent requirement for lateral migration be not too great, or similarly a near approach on the part of the deeper regions of the sea either by the agency of a submerged valley or some other considerable depression. Such conditions are perhaps not always found in appropriate combination in the regions inhabited by these species. Whatever the said conditions may be, Funchal evidently satisfies them, and so affords nearly ideal opportunity for the study of *Abralia veranyi*. It is hoped that possibly this will prove by no means the only enoplateuthid squid to be found there.

Whether the animal occurs in the near neighborhood of Madeira at all seasons of the year, or whether its nightly appearance in summer is but the visible culmination of a more extended series of migrations from much farther afield, is a final interesting problem which must be left for some future deep-sea expedition to solve.

Acknowledgment is due to Senhores M. O. Perestrello & Fos. of Madeira for the use of the accompanying photograph, and to Sr. de Noronha for the original of the small sketch map appended. A grant from the Rumford Committee has also been a contributing factor in the preparation of this report.

SUMMARY.

1. *Abralia veranyi* (Rüppell) is a somewhat rarely captured Mediterranean cephalopod, possessing interesting luminous qualities due to the presence of numerous and exceedingly complicated photogenic organs.

2. It is here reported from the Bay of Funchal, Madeira, this constituting, it is believed, the first record of the species from the open Atlantic.

3. The specimens appear to differ in only very minor respects if at all from those of Mediterranean origin.

4. The species comes into the shallow water of the harbor at night during the summer months, supposedly for the purpose of mating, spawning, or both.

5. Owing to their comparative abundance at this time of year and the ease with which they may be observed and captured, Funchal is evidently an unusually favorable locality for the study of the light production or general bionomics of this interesting little squid.

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CONVERGENCE OF COLORATION BETWEEN
AMERICAN PILOSE FLIES AND
BUMBLEBEEES (*BOMBUS*).

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THE EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC GROUP OF *Volucella Bombylans*.

In a previous paper, in which the heredity of color variations in the European fly *Volucella Bombylans* has been described, an attempt has been made to show the striking resemblance in coloration between various flies of the families *Syrphidae*, *Asilidae*, *Tabanidae*, *Oestridae* and *Bombylidæ* with various bumblebee species which inhabit the same geographical regions.

The study of those analogous color patterns which appear both amongst flies and bumblebees is interesting from a genetic point of view and bears on the problem of mimicry in animals.

The black *V. Bombylans* (Pl. I., Figs. 1, ♂, ♀; 2, ♀; 3, ♀) with its fulvous bands on the last abdominal segments has exactly the same coloration as the common European *Bombus lapidarius*, *B. confusus*, *B. rajellus*, *B. mastrucatus*, etc. The other variety, *V. haemoroidalis* (Pl. I., Figs. 4, 5), is almost indistinguishable from many other *Bombus* species, as for example *B. agrorum*, *B. vorticosis*. The third variety of the *V. Bombylans*, the *V. B. var. plumata* (Pl. I., Figs. 6, ♂, ♀; 7, ♀) with its characteristic white hairs on the last abdominal rings, is extremely like *B. hortorum*, *B. lucorum*. *Volucella bombylans* (and its varieties), if really protected by her mimetic coloration, may be supposed to creep unobserved into a *Bombus* nest to lay her eggs there on the wax-combs. More often however the fly puts her eggs on the grass and moss, which covers the *Bombus* nest. This of course can only be performed with a *Bombus* species which builds its nest on the ground, not under the ground. In localities where many *Bombus* colonies of this kind are present the *Volucella* flies are also found in large quantities. The larvae of *Volucella* feed on wax,

pollen and decayed or injured *Bombus* larvæ (fresh larvæ are never attacked).

The "Mimicry" of *Volucella* offers a fascinating field for research and one of the steps which must be taken in the preliminary study of this case is to find out how close a resemblance there is between a variety of *Volucella* and the various species of *Bombus* in the same geographical area. Such a resemblance has been described in my previous paper for the European group of *Volucella*. I was interested therefore to see if this was true for the American varieties of *Volucella*.

Before dealing with this question I wish to refer to some new details on the coloration of the European *Volucella Bombylans* which must be also taken into consideration in the study of the North American group. Many flies of these species have been collected recently in the central parts of Russia, to see if there are any other variations than those which have been generally described. Specimens of *V. Bombylans* have been found with an entirely rufous abdomen (Pl. I., 2, ♀), which corresponds exactly to the color of the abdomen of the northern *B. laponicus* and other allied species. This variety has been collected in Russia only twice in a region where the *B. laponicus* does not occur. Another variety of *V. Bombylans*, which may be named *V. Bombylans* var. *flava*, is not uncommon. This fly has a spot of yellow hairs on the thorax (Pl. I., Fig. 3, ♀), but the rest of the fly is typical *Bombylans*. (Only females of this type have been collected.) The yellow spot of hairs of this black variety is located in the same place as the black spot of yellow varieties of male *V. hæmoroidalis* and male *V. plumata*. It is significant from a genetic point of view that in the European *Volucella* group of flies only this little area of thoracic hairs is limited to one sex, whereas the entire body coloration is otherwise alike in both sexes. Thus the yellow spot of the black variety seems to appear only in the females, the black spot of the yellow varieties on the contrary is limited to the males (*V. plumata* and *V. hæmoroidalis*). It is, however, possible to find in some localities also females of *V. plumata* and *V. hæmoroidalis* which have a very reduced black thoracic spot of hairs. The black spot itself has often a brown color in the females, but never in the males. The *V. altaica* from Asia is extremely

dimorphic in regard to this black spot. The male (Pl. I., Fig. 9) has a perfectly black thorax, the female has the usual black spot in relation to its size and coloration like the males of *V. hæmoroidalis* (Pl. I., Fig. 4) and *V. plumata* (Pl. I., Figs. 6, 7). The yellow spot of *V. Bombylans* var. *flava* is inherited. I had in one culture (unpublished data) 6 females in ♀ of *V. Bombylans* var. *flava* from a female *V. Bombylans* var. *flava* (Pl. I., Fig. 8).

The *V. Bombylans* var. *caucasica*, which lives in bumblebee nests of the Caucasian mountains, has a white thorax (the black spot is present in the males), and the upper part of the abdomen is also white, but the third to sixth abdominal rings are exactly the same as in the European *V. Bombylans* and *V. hæmoroidalis* (compare Figs. 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, Pl. I.).

On looking at this fly one gets the impression that only the yellow hairs of the European variety *V. plumata* and *V. hæmoroidalis* have changed into white, but that the black and fulvous hair covering the end of the abdomen remained unaffected. A parallel color change occurs in almost all black bumblebee species which inhabit the Caucasus. The *Volucella Caucasia* is thus similar to the Caucasian *B. eriophorus*, *B. niveatus* and other species of this region, which have white patches of hair on the thorax. The black and rufous parts of the bumblebees' abdominal rings, which correspond to the black and rufous bands of the endemic *Volucella* flies remained also unaffected and similar in coloration to those of the European *Bombus lapidarius*, *B. confusus* and *Volucella Bombylans* (type). Many other Caucasian flies (*Cheilosia æstracea*, *Tabanus gudaurensis*, *T. tricolor*, etc.) have similar color changes parallel to those described above. The appearance of white spots or bands is characteristic for both bumblebees and flies of this mountain region.

Summarizing these data we can say that there is a striking phenomenon of color convergence between European *Syrphidæ* (especially *Volucella*, and its varieties), *Tabanidæ*, *Asilidæ* and *Œstridæ* and bumblebees, which are distributed in the same geographical area. A similar parallelism in coloration can be also noticed for the Caucasian region. It must be also pointed out that there is a predominance of certain color patterns for the European group of bumblebee-like flies and bumblebees. The

combination of black and rufous, white and yellow, and black and white stripes is more often found than black and yellow. This is a characteristic feature of both insect genera in the European part of the old world.

An entirely different situation is found in the United States of America. Even a superficial survey of the collections of American (Syrphidae and Asilidae) flies and bumblebees shows distinctly, that both insect genera have, strictly speaking, only one pattern, namely, black and yellow striped individuals. (Only two species, *B. occidentalis* and *B. borealis*, have parts of their body covered with white hairs.) The combination of black and rufous, yellow and white, black and white, is absolutely absent or very rare on this continent. The overwhelming numbers of black and yellow striped specimens among these flies and bumblebees is a peculiar feature throughout the United States. The phenomenon of color convergence has reached its climax in North America.

THE NORTH AMERICAN GROUP OF *Volucella Bombylans*.

The systematic relationship of the American varieties of *V. Bombylans* has been recently studied by Johnson ('16, '25) who divides these flies into two large groups. To the first (the black-faced group) belongs the eastern *V. erecta*, var. *V. erecta americana* var. *V. erecta sanguinea*, and the boreal *V. erecta arctica*. To the second (the yellow-faced group) belongs the western *V. facialis*, the Canadian *V. facialis lateralis* and the *Vol. facialis* var. *rufomaculata*, which is found in Colorado and along the Rocky Mountains. Excepting the coloration of the pleura, which may be yellow or black in both groups, and excepting differences in the color patterns of the thorax and abdomen, no other distinguishing characters have been detected. It is very probable that all European and American varieties might interbreed.

CONVERGENCE OF COLORATION BETWEEN FLIES OF THE EASTERN STATES AND BUMBLEBEEES OF THE SAME REGION.

Volucella bombylans var. *erecta-americana*
(Pl. I., 15).

The eastern *Volucella bombylans* var. *erecta* (Pl. I., 15) *americana* is entirely pale yellow except the last two to four posterior abdom-

inal segments, which are covered with black hairs. The same distribution of yellow and black hairs on the thorax and abdomen is characteristic for all the eastern species of pilose flies. *Mallota posticata* (Pl. I., 18, 19), *Mallota cimbiciformis* (Pl. I., 20-22), *Eristalis flavipes* (Pl. I., 23-24), *Eristalis bastardii* (Pl. I., 26-27), *Dasyllis lata* (Pl. II., 9), *Dasyllis marquarti* (Pl. II., 9), *Das. sacraton* (Pl. II., 9), *Das. champlaini* (Pl. II., 8). All these *Syrphidae* and *Asilidae* are very common in the eastern states and can be found on the same flowers with *Bombus*.

Six bumblebee species of the eastern states, namely *Bombus vagans* (Pl. III., 1), *B. affinis* (Pl. III., 7), *B. impatiens* (Pl. III., 3), *B. separatus* (Pl. III., 2), *B. bimaculatus* (Pl. III., 5), *B. perplexus* (Pl. IV., 4) have a coloration exactly corresponding to *Volucella erecta americana* (Pl. I., 15) and to the other *Syrphidae* and *Asilidae* which are mentioned above. (Compare Pl. I., 15, with Pl. III., 1, 7, 3, 2, 5, 4. Compare also Pl. II., 7, 8, 9, with Pl. III., 1, 7, 3, 2, 5, 4 and then Pl. II., 10, 11, with Pl. III., 13, 14, 15.)

Four other eastern bumblebee species, namely *B. pennsylvanicus* (Pl. IV., 13, 14), *B. auricomus* (Pl. IV., 13, 14), *B. terricola* (Pl. IV., 14) have a slightly different distribution of black and yellow hairs on the thorax and abdomen. This group of bees has its corresponding group of flies. It is hardly possible to detect any difference between the eastern *Eristalis flavipes* (Pl. I., 24) var. *b.*, *Dasyllis dilhoracica* (Pl. II., 10, 11), *Das. grossa* (Pl. II., 11) and the bumblebees enumerated above. The flies are generally like the females, workers and males of the corresponding bumblebee species, but this is only true when the Hymenoptera has no polymorphic females or males. *B. bimaculatus* (Pl. III., 5) of this first eastern group, which is like *V. erecta americana*, has a male variety colored like *Eristalis flavipes* var. *b* (Pl. I., 24), *Eristalis flavipes*, on the other hand, has just been compared with the bumblebees of the second eastern group. (The groups are divided here only in relation to their color patterns.) We find the same phenomenon in *B. affinis* (Pl. III., 7), and *B. pennsylvanicus*, both of which have three types of males; (Pl. IV., 10, 11, 15-18) one of these is like the female, but the two others are entirely different. The latter two are extremely like *Criorhina verbosa* (Pl. II., 14) and *Criorhina Kinkaidi* var. *b* (Pl. II., 16).

As a rule, it is possible to maintain that most of the bumblebees' males are like the *Criorhina* flies. This is due to the fact that the males, like these flies, have reduced black bands which make them almost indistinguishable.

From the above we might infer that there is a very close resemblance between bumblebees and flies of the eastern parts of the United States. Yet it would be a mistake to conclude from this that there is mimicry between both genera; it must not be forgotten that there is also the same convergence in coloration, even as regards details, within the group of bumblebees and also within the group of flies or, more exactly, there is not only a correspondence between the flies and bumblebees of a given district, but the several species of Hymenoptera found living in a region resemble one another closely, and species of flies are also much alike among themselves. For example, when the bumblebees are compared with one another, we see that the coloration of the variety of *B. auricomus* (Pl. III., 13, 14), with the yellow scutellum, reappears in the same pattern in *B. pennsylvanicus* (Pl. III., 13, 14). One of the males of *B. bimaculatus* (Pl. III., 9), is similar in this respect to one of the males of *B. affinis* (Pl. III., 11). Many other coincidences are also evident and not uncommon in these groups. (Compare figures.) The coloration of the European *B. lapidarius* reappears in *B. confusus*, in many other species and in *Volucella Bombylans* (type) (Pl. I., 1).

The distribution of *V. b. erecta americana* is probably by far more restricted than that of the above mentioned bumblebees, which may be found further to the south. This can be explained through the fact that all large *Volucella* are circumboreal species and never appear farther to the south than the 42d parallel, unless there are mountains which extend to the south. Favorable conditions are thus produced and the bumblebee nests may be found again infested with *Volucella* larvae in more elevated zones. *Volucella erecta americana* is not to be found much farther to the north. According to Johnson this variety can be collected along the Atlantic coast as far north as Mount Desert, but there this fly is already replaced by *Volucella bombylans facialis lateralis* (Pl. I., 11), which belongs to the Canadian zone.

Volucella bombylans evecta (Walker) (Pl. I., 14).

The thorax, scutellum and the three first abdominal rings of this fly correspond to *V. B. evecta americana*, (Pl. I., 15), but the posterior 4-6 segments may be either yellow or reddish. *Evecta* is the upper austral form, extending through the transition zone. This fly resembles closely the males of the eastern bumblebees. Its coloration has altogether the aspect of these Hymenoptera, but a strict parallelism in color patterns with any of the eastern bumblebees is not traceable. *Volucella evecta* is a rare form when compared with *V. evecta americana*. It is possible that a detailed study of its distribution in the east might explain its color patterns.

Volucella bombylans evecta sanguinea (Pl. I., 16).

This variety is an extremely rare variation of *V. B. evecta americana*. It has been recorded in the eastern states. This fly has yellow hairs on thorax, scutellum and abdomen, except the third abdominal ring, which is covered with fulvous pile. The sides of this segment have some black hairs. This *Volucella* represents, in a way, a parallel variation to that of *V. rufomaculata* in the subspecies *facialis*, which is distributed along the more elevated portions of the Rocky Mountains. *V. sanguinea* is not comparable to any bumblebee species of the eastern United States. A third and analogous parallel variation is found in *Eristalis flavipes* var. *melanostoma* (Pl. I., 25) of the east, and a fourth in *Dasyllis fernaldi* (Pl. II., 18) an Asilid fly of the Rocky Mountains.

The sporadic reappearance of parallel variations in *V. sanguinea* and *Eristalis flavipes*, which are analogous to the variety of *V. rufomaculata* and *Dasyllis fernaldi* (Pl. II., 18) of the west, suggests that the genic mutations producing these color changes in some individuals are probably of a related chemical structure, in the sense of their end effect. It is also interesting that they affect the same parts of the insect's body. The same argument can be applied to the bumblebees. It would be more difficult to explain, however, the way in which a new mutation could replace the more abundant form for a given geographical zone.

CONVERGENCE OF COLORATION BETWEEN FLIES
OF THE ARCTIC ZONE.

Volucella bombylans arctica (Pl. I., 17). This syrphid of the *ejecta* group is entirely dark yellow, with a short and unfinished black band on the thorax. This *Volucella* is extremely like in coloration to the arctic bumblebee—*Bombus gelidus* (Pl. IV., 1), and *B. borealis* (not figured).

CONVERGENCE OF COLORATION BETWEEN FLIES OF THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS AND BUMBLEBEEES OF THIS REGION.

The *Volucella facialis Group*, *Volucella Bombylans facialis var. rufomaculata* (Pl. I., 13).

Volucella rufomaculata, which is a parallel variation to the *V. ejecta sanguinea* of the *ejecta* group is limited to the mountain region of Colorado, Utah and New Mexico. The dorsum of the thorax is black pilose-like in all varieties of the *facialis* group. This is a characteristic which is entirely absent in the *ejecta* group (compare Pl. II., 14–17). In this respect the male and female flies of the *ejecta* group are like the females of the European varieties of *Volucella Bombylans*, and the male and female flies of the *facialis* group can be compared to the males of the European varieties of *Volucella plumata* and *hæmoroidalis*. The pleura of the *facialis* flies are black as in the European varieties. It is not improbable that the western American *Volucella* group is more closely related to the European group.

It is again striking that *V. rufomaculata* has a coloration resembling that of most of the bumblebees of this mountain region. An exact coincidence in color patterns can be observed in *Bombus sylvicola* (Pl. IV., 5), *B. huntii* (Pl. IV., 1–2), *B. melanopygus* (Pl. IV., 4), *B. eduardii* (Pl. IV., 13–17), *B. ternarius* (Pl. IV., 6). The same is true for the Asilid fly *Dasyllis fernaldi* (Pl. II., 18).

Five other bumblebee species of the Colorado area, namely, *Bombus centralis* (Pl. IV., 18), *B. borealis* (Pl. IV., 12), *B. gelidus* (Pl. IV., 1), *B. flavifrons* (Pl. IV., 7, 8), *B. rufocinctus* (Pl. IV., 9), *B. kirbuellus* (not figured), *B. appositus* (Pl. IV., 12) have also the same type of coloration with the characteristic rufous abdominal segment like that of *V. rufomaculata*. The coincidence in

coloration of the segments is not so exact as in the first four bumblebee species enumerated above, but the reappearance of some segments with red pile must be regarded as a characteristic feature in both insect genera of this region. It is strange that the Caucasian mountain species of flies and bees are partly changing their pile into a shining white color, whereas the American mountain species tend to turn into a bright vermillion coloration.

Another group, consisting of bumblebees with a shining wax yellow coloration is also present in the Colorado region. This includes *B. sonorus* (Pl. IV., 3), *B. morissoni* (Pl. IV., 4), *B. nevadensis* (Pl. IV., 5), *B. terricola* (Pl. III., 14). As regards the distribution of black and yellow bands, the first three species are like the first group of the eastern bumblebees, and the fourth one is like the bumblebees of the second eastern group. The main difference is observed in the tint of the yellow pile, which is extremely bright in *B. morissoni*, *nevadensis*, *sonorus* and *terricola*. It is apparently again a case of color convergence, but which is present only in the hymenoptera group, as no flies of this kind have been collected in this mountain zone. Occasionally it is possible to find *Volucella* flies with the more brilliant wax yellow pile, but it must be pointed out that the yellow hairs of the flies vary in intensity of pattern from light ochre to swarthy brown, or more exactly from maize yellow through wax yellow to deep colonial buff. Many slight variations can also be noticed in the red pile. The black color on the contrary is always constant. Many Asilidæ are like these bumblebees; an exact distribution of the same colored bands can be observed in *Dasyllis lata* var. *a*. *D. champlaini*, *D. macquarti*, *D. grossa* ♀ (Pl. II., 7, 8, 9, 12). *Mallota posticata* (Pl. I., 19).

CONVERGENCE OF COLORATION BETWEEN FLIES OF THE PACIFIC COAST AND THE *Bombus* SPECIES WHICH INHABIT THE SAME REGION.

The Volucella bombylans facialis (Pl. I., 12).

This fly is one of the darkest when compared with the other pilose species of this family. The pleura are black pilose; the dorsum of the thorax has a larger area covered with black hairs than in all other *Volucella* flies. The black hairs of the third

abdominal segment extend also partly onto the second ring, and sometimes on to the upper quarter of the fourth abdominal ring. The last segments are yellow pilose or reddish. An increase of black hairs on thorax, scutellum and abdomen is also characteristic for the endemic bumblebees. *Bombus vosnesensky* (Pl. IV., 6), *B. Crotskii* (Pl. IV., 7), *B. californicus* (Pl. IV., 8-11) are good examples of this. *Volucella facialis* is distributed along the Pacific coast and in Alaska. The coincidence in the distribution of black and yellow bands in *Volucella* flies and bumblebees of this zone is not absolutely exact, but yet the increase of the black hairs and the distinct and parallel process of melanization in both insect genera is strikingly evident.

Volucella B. facialis lateralis (Pl. I., 11).

This fly is extremely like the former one, but the pleura are yellow pilose, and the black spot on the dorsum of the thorax has a more reduced area than in *V. facialis*. *V. lateralis* belongs to the Canadian zone (Alaska to Newfoundland, Mt. Desert) and is, so to speak, the eastern representative of *facialis*. I have no data as to other flies and bumblebees of this large area, and a comparison has thus been impossible.

SUMMARY.

1. The European Syrphid fly *Volucella Bombylans* and its varieties, *V. hæmoroidalis* and *V. plumata* have a coloration which corresponds to the coloration of the majority of European bumblebees. The same is true of many other pilose flies of Europe.
2. The Caucasian *Volucella bombylans caucasica* has a coloration which corresponds to the coloration of various bumblebees of this mountain region. The same is true for other pilose flies of this zone.
3. The American *Volucella bombylans erecta-americana* of the eastern states and 8 other species of Syrphid flies have exactly the same color patterns as six different *Bombus* species of this region; four different *Bombus* of the same area have the same type of coloration as three other beelike flies of the eastern states.
4. *Volucella bombylans erecta sanguinea*, and *Eristalis flavipes* var. *melanostoma* of the eastern states are rare and parallel

variations which have analogous coloration to that of *Volucella bomb.* var. *rufomaculata* of the *facialis* group and of the Rocky Mountain region.

5. *Volucella bombylans arctica* of the *ejecta* group is similar in coloration to the arctic bumblebee *Bombus gelidus* and to other species.

6. *Volucella bombylans* var. *rufomaculata* of the Rocky mountains has a similar coloration to twelve different bumblebee species which occur in the same region. The Asilid fly *Dasyllis fernaldi* of the same zone has a corresponding coloration to *V. rufomaculata* and to the twelve bumblebee species.

7. *Volucella bomb. facialis* of the Pacific coast has analogous color patterns to three bumblebee species of this zone. *Volucella bomb. facialis lateralis* of the Canadian zone and *V. bomb. ejecta* of the eastern states have not been studied on account of absence of data as to their distribution.

I am greatly indebted to Dr. A. Sturtevant, Dr. Johnson and Dr. Lutz, for the use of their collections of flies and of *Bombus*, also for their help and advice in this work.

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E. Gabritschevsky.

- '24 Farbenpolymorphismus und Vererbung mimetischer varietäten der Fliege *V. Bombylans* und anderes Zweiflügler. *Zeitschr. für Induktive Abst. und Vererbungslehre*, Bd. XXXII., Vol. 1, 2.

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EXPLANATION OF PLATES I-IV.

All figures represent flies in a schematized way. The upper square is the thorax; the second one is the scutellum; the third is the abdomen. The dotted line between the abdomens of different flies shows the segments of the insects. The head is not drawn. In Plate I. the black color corresponds to the black pile, the white to white hairs, the spotted parts are of a yellow coloration, and the vertical parallel lines correspond to a cadmium orange tint in the flies. In all the other plates, (I. (11-27) and III., IV.) the uncolored parts of the schemes correspond to different tints of yellow (the exact color stands in the explanation of the plates; these colors have been compared with Ridgway's Color Standards—R. Ridgway, "Color

Standards and Color Nomenclature," 1912, Washington). The black parts are again black in the flies and bumblebees; the striped individuals have on those segments a cadmium orange coloration. The exact shades of these different red tints are given under every figure in the explanation of the plate.

EXPLANATION OF PLATE I (Nos. 1-10).

The European and Asiatic Groups of Volucella Bombylans.

1. *Volucella Bombylans*, ♂, ♀.
2. *Volucella Bombylans*, var. *rufa* ♀.
3. *Volucella Bombylans*, var. *flava*. ♀.
4. *Volucella B. haemoroidalis* ♂, and *Volucella B. altaica* ♀.
5. *Volucella B. haemoroidalis* ♀.
6. *Volucella B. plumata* ♂.
7. *Volucella B. plumata* ♀.
8. *Volucella caucasica* ♂.
9. *Volucella altaica* ♂.
10. *Volucella plumata* var. *a* ♀.

The yellow pile is variable. Specimens of these flies are found with a maize yellow (19-40, y. f., Pl. IV.), wax yellow (21, 0-yy Pl. XVI.), and deep colonial buff yellow (21, 0, Pl. XXX.). The red pile is less variable, yet specimens with a cadmium orange (13, 0-0, Pl. III.), or Mars yellow (15-00, Pl. III.), or ochraceus tawny (15-00, Pl. XV.) are found.

The white pile is snow white, or with a slight yellow tint.

EXPLANATION OF PLATE I. (Nos. 11-27).

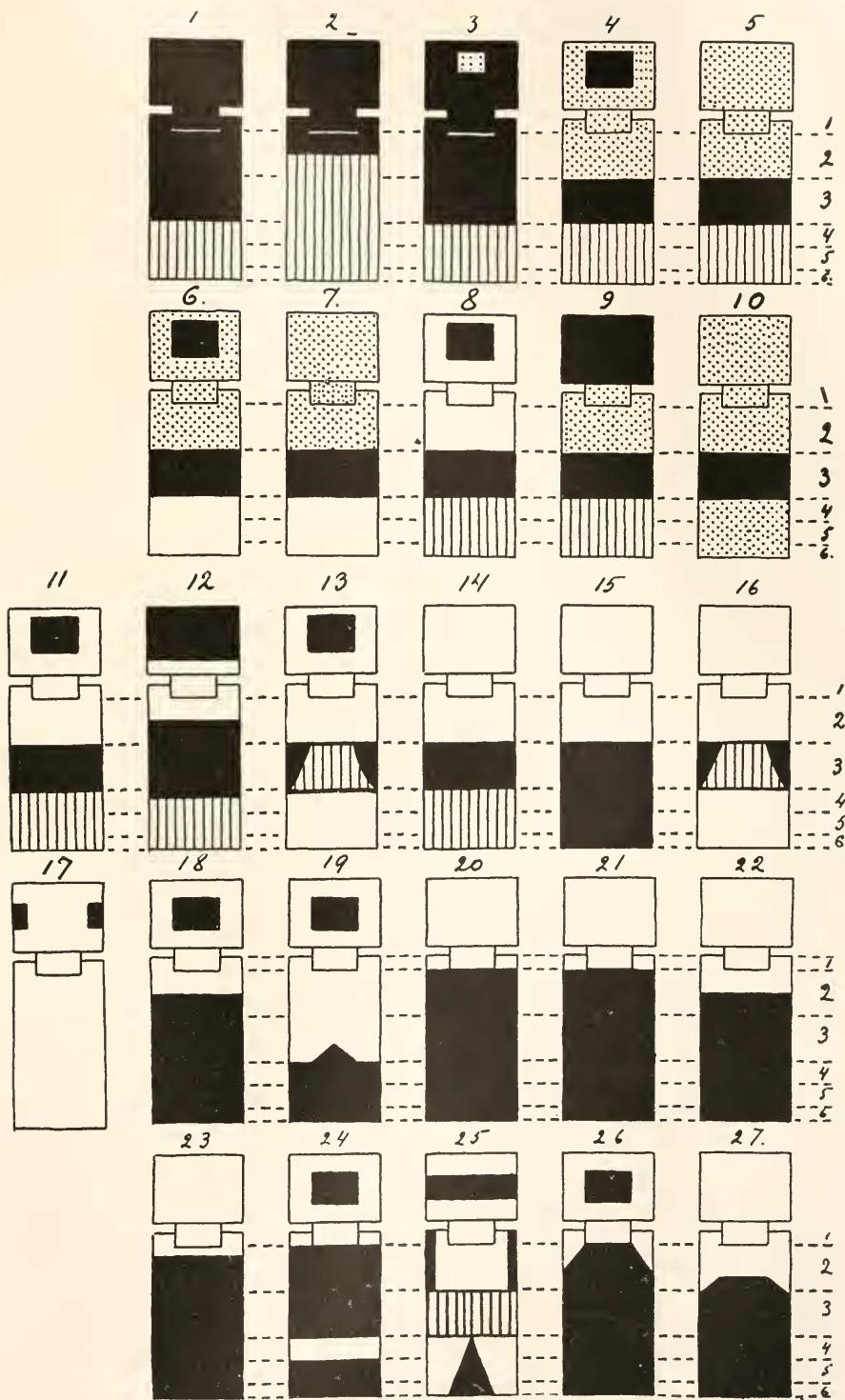
The North American Group of Volucella bombylans.

11. *Volucella bombylans facialis lateralis*, ♂, ♀.
12. *V. B. facialis*, ♂, ♀.
13. *V. B. facialis* var. *rufomaculata*, ♂, ♀. } The *facialis* group—maize yellow.
14. *V. B. evecta*, ♂, ♀.
15. *V. B. evecta-americana*, ♂, ♀.
16. *V. B. evecta* var. *sanguinea*, ♀. } The *evecta* group—maize yellow.
17. *V. B. evecta artica*, ♂, ♀.

The North American Bumblebee-like Syphidae 11-27.

The yellow pile is maize yellow (19-40, y. f., Pl. IV.), the red pile is cadmium orange (130-0 Pl. III.).

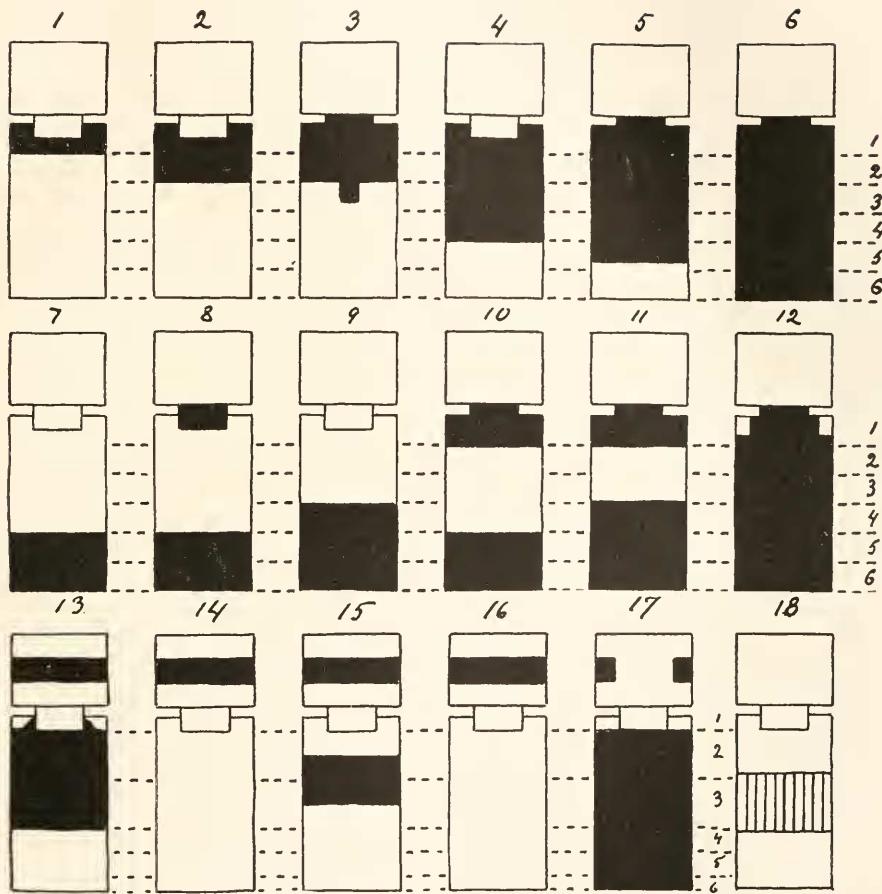
18. *Mallota posticata*, ♂, ♀. } Wax yellow or maize yellow.
19. *Mallota posticata* var. *a*, ♂, ♀. } Gray pile.
20. *M. cimbiciformis* var. *a*, ♂, ♀. } Wax yellow pile.
21. *M. cimbiciformis* var. *b*, ♂, ♀.
22. *M. cimbiciformis* var. *c*, ♂, ♀.
23. *Eristalis flavipes* var. *a*, ♂, ♀. } Wax yellow or maize yellow.
24. *Er. flavipes* var. *b*, ♂, ♀. }
25. *Er. flavipes* var. *melanostoma*, ♀. }
26. *Er. bastardii*, ♀. } Maize yellow.
27. *Er. bastardii*, ♂, ♀.



EXPLANATION OF PLATE II.

The North American Bumblebee-like Asilidæ, and Flies of the Criorrhina Group.

1. *Dasylus unicolor*, ♂, ♀.
 2. *Dasylus insignis*, ♂, ♀.
 3. *D. posticata*, ♂, ♀.
 4. *D. divisor*, *D. cinerea*, ♂, ♀.
 5. *D.* sp. ?, ♂, ♀.
 6. *D. flavicola*, ♂, ♀; *D. virginica*, ♂, ♀; *D. grossa*, ♂, ♀.
 7. *D. lata* var. *a*, ♂, ♀.
 8. *D. chAMPLAINI*, ♂, ♀.
 9. *D. lata* var. *b*, ♂, ♀; *D. marquarti*, ♂, ♀; *D. sacraton*, ♂, ♀.
 10. *D. dithoracica*, var. *a*, ♂, ♀.
 11. *D. dithoracica* var. *b*, ♂, ♀; *D. grossa*, ♀.
 12. *D. grossa* var. *a*, ♀.
 13. *Criorrhina nigripes*, ♂, ♀.
 14. *Criorrhina verbosa*, ♂, ♀.
 15. *Criorrhina kincaidi* var. *a*, ♂, ♀.
 16. *Criorrhina kincaidi* var. *b*, ♂, ♀.
 17. *Cephenomyia abdominalis*, ♂, ♀.
 18. *Dasylus fernaldi*, ♂, ♀.
- } Wax yellow
of deep colonial buff.
- } Deep colonial buff.
- } Cadmium orange, maize yellow.



E. GABRITSCHEVSKY.

EXPLANATION OF PLATE III.

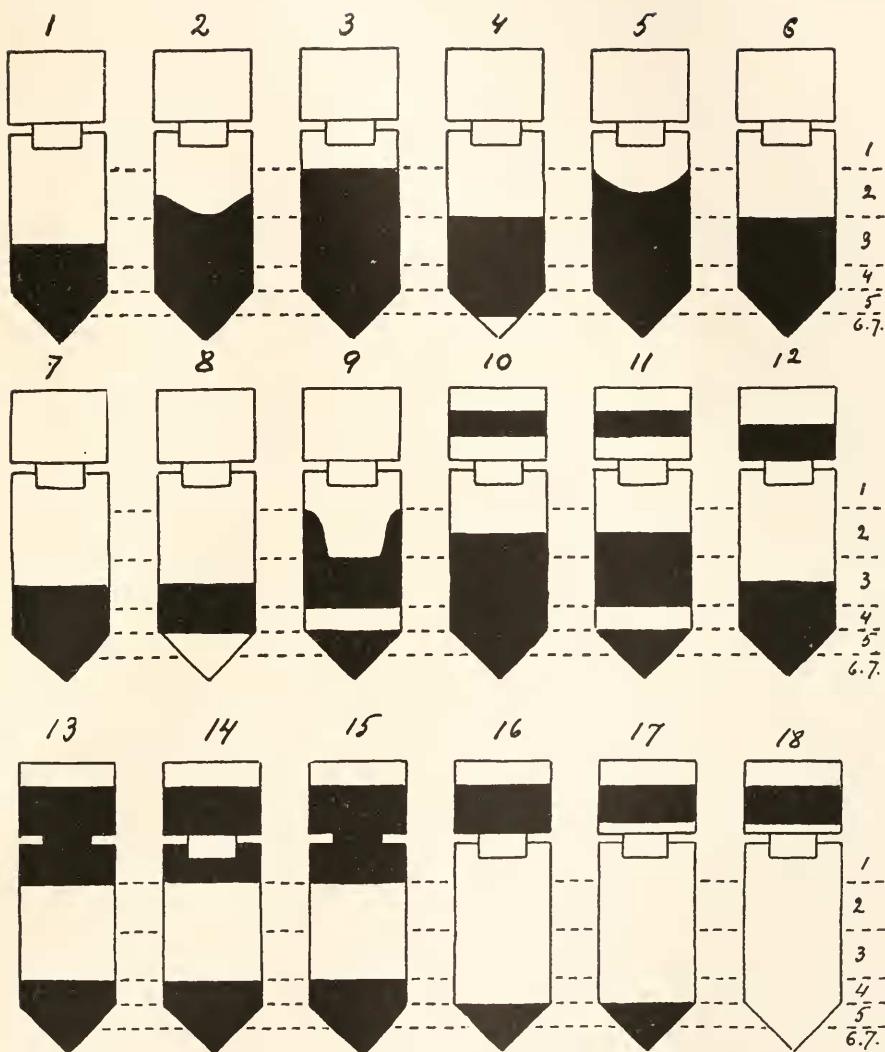
Bumblebees of the Eastern States of North America.

First Group 1-11.

1. *Bombus vagans*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Deep colonial buff 21", o—Pl. XXX.)
2. *B. separatus*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Deep colonial buff—Pl. XXX.)
3. *B. impatiens*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Deep colonial buff—Pl. XXX.)
4. *B. perplexus*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Deep buff yellow—Pl. IV.)
5. *B. bimaculatus*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Deep colonial buff, 21", o—Pl. XXX.)
6. *B. bimaculatus*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Deep colonial buff—Pl. XXX.)
7. *B. affinis*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Deep colonial buff—Pl. XXX.)
8. *B. vagans*, —, —, ♂. (Deep colonial buff—Pl. XXX.)
9. *B. bimaculatus*, —, —, ♂. (Deep colonial buff—Pl. XXX.)
10. *B. affinis*, —, —, ♂. (Deep colonial buff—Pl. XXX.)
11. *B. affinis*, —, —, ♂. (Olive buff, 21", o—Pl. XL.)

Second Group 12-18.

12. *B. fraternus*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Deep colonial buff 21", o—Pl. XXX.)
- 13, 14. *B. pensylvanicus*, ♀, ♀. (Mustard yellow 19', b—Pl. XVI.)
- 13, 14. *B. auricomus*, ♀, ♀. (Deep colonial buff, 21"—Pl. XXX.)
14. *B. terricola*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Apricot yellow—Pl. IV.)
15. *B. pensylvanicus*, ♂. (Mustard yellow, 19"—Pl. XVI.)
16. *B. pensylvanicus*, ♂. (Mustard yellow, 19"—Pl. XVI.)
17. *B. pensylvanicus*, ♂. (Pyrite yellow, 23"—Pl. IV.)
- B. fervidus*, ♀, ♀, ♂.
18. *B. pensylvanicus*, ♂. (Pyrite yellow, 23"—Pl. IV.)



EXPLANATION OF PLATE IV.

Bumblebees of the Rocky Mountains.

1. *B. huntii*, ♀, ♂. (Olive ochre, 21"—Pl. XXX.)
2. *B. huntii*, —, —, ♂. (Amber yellow, 21"—Pl. XVI.)
(3d and 4th abd. segments cadmium orange, 130—Pl. III.)
3. *B. melanopygus*, ♀. (Cartridge buff 19"—Pl. XXX.)
(3d and 4th abd. segments cadmium orange 130—Pl. III.)
4. *B. melanopygus*, ♂. (Segments cadmium orange—Pl. III.)
5. *B. sylvicola*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Straw yellow, 21"—Pl. XVI.)
(3d and 4th abd. segments orange rufous, 11', i—Pl. II.)
6. *B. ternarius*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Straw yellow, 21"—Pl. XVI.)
(3d, 4th and 5th abd. segments cadmium orange—Pl. III.)
(130—light buff, 17"—Pl. XV.)
7. *B. flavifrons*, ♀, ♀. (Thorax light buff, 17', o—Pl. XV.)
(Abdomen ochraceus tawny, 15—Pl. XV.)
8. *B. flavifrons*, ♂. (Antimony yellow, 17', b—Pl. XV.)
9. *B. rufocinctus*, ♀, ♀. (Thorax, colonial buff, abdomen olive ochre, 21"—Pl. XXX.)
10. *B. rufocinctus*, ♂. (Colonial buff.)
11. *B. rufocinctus*, ♂. (Colonial buff.)
12. *B. apositus*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Thorax white with gray.)
B. borealis, ♀.
13. *B. edwardsii*, ♀, ♀. (Maize yellow, 19—Pl. IV.)
- 14-15. *B. edwardsii*, ♂. (Maize yellow—Pl. IV.)
16. *B. edwardsii*, ♂. (Cadmium orange, 13—Pl. III.)
17. *B. edwardsii*, ♂. (Cadmium orange, 13—Pl. III.)
18. *B. centralis*, ♀, ♀. (Maize yellow, 19—Pl. —.)
(Cadmium orange, 13—Pl. II.)

EXPLANATION OF PLATE IV.

The Arctic Species of Bumblebees (Labrador).

1. *B. gelidus*, ♀, ♀.
2. *B. frigidus*, ♀, ♀.

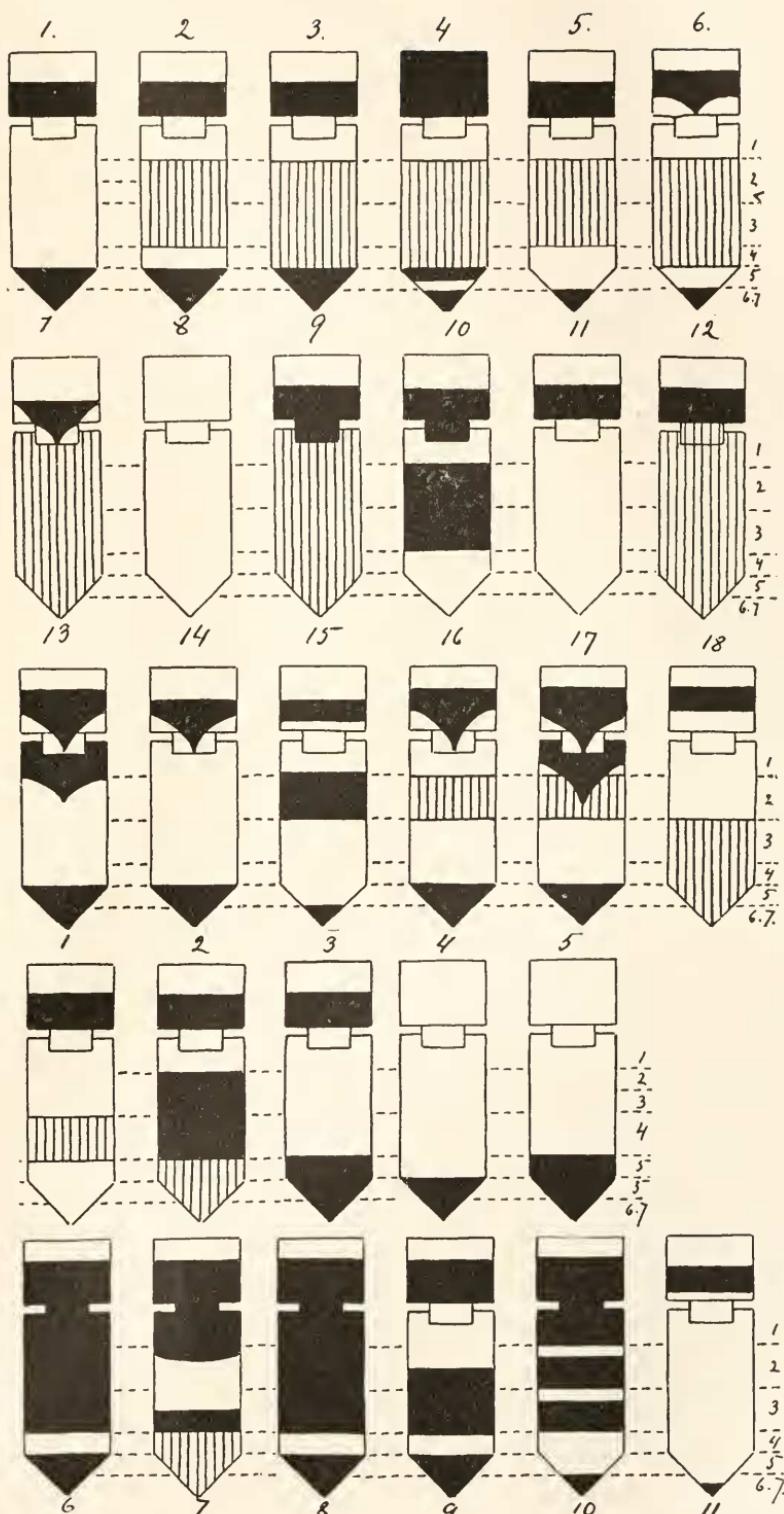
The Wax Yellow Group of Rocky Mountain Bumblebees.

3. *B. sonorus*, ♀, ♀. (Wax yellow, 21"—Pl. XVI.)
4. *B. morrissoni*, ♀, ♀. (Wax yellow—Pl. XVI.)
5. *B. nevadensis*, ♀, ♀. (Antimony yellow, 17"—Pl. XV.)

EXPLANATION OF PLATE IV.

Bumblebees of the Pacific Coast (California-Alaska).

6. *B. voznesenskii*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Pinard yellow, 21"—Pl. IV.)
7. *B. crotshii*, ♀, ♀, ♂. (Deep colonial buff, 21"—Pl. XXX.)
(4th, 7th segments flame scarlet—Pl. II.)
8. *B. californicus*, ♀. (Chartreuse yellow, 25"—Pl. XXX.)
9. *B. californicus*, ♀. (Chartreuse yellow—Pl. XXX.)
10. *B. californicus*, ♂. (Yellow ochre, 17"—Pl. XV.)
11. *B. californicus*, ♂. (Yellow ochre—Pl. XXX.)



BIOLOGICAL BULLETIN

THE FLAGELLATE FAUNA OF THE CŒCUM OF THE STRIPED GROUND SQUIRREL, *CITELLUS* *TRIDECEMLINEATUS*, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO *CHILOMASTIX* *MAGNA* SP. NOV.

ELERY R. BECKER,
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The intestinal protozoan fauna of the rat, mouse, guinea pig and rabbit has been investigated quite extensively. Not so much has been done on field rodents as on those which lend themselves to laboratory use. In the autumn of 1925 and spring of 1926 the writer made a study of the protozoa harbored in the alimentary tract of the striped ground squirrel, *Citellus tridecemlineatus*. This rodent was found to be quite as rich a field for investigation of protozoan parasites as the aforementioned animals.

The protozoa so far found to be residents of the cœcum of the striped ground squirrel comprise one species of amoeba, *Endamæba citelli*; one species of *Chilomastix*; two species of *Trichomonas*, one of them probably new; one species of *Tetratrichomastix*, subgenus of *Eutrichomastix*; one species of *Hexamitus*; and a flagellate which is either a species of *Hexamitus* or *Urophagus*. In the small intestine a *Giardia* was found. *Endamæba citelli*, and its pathogenic parasite, *Sphærita endamæbæ*, were described by the writer (1926) in a previous paper. The *Giardia* was sent for identification to Dr. R. W. Hegner, who found it to be a new species.* The *Chilomastix*, *Trichomonas*, *Tetratrichomastix*, and *Hexamitus* will be reported upon in this paper in the order named. The preparations of the other flagellate were not entirely suitable

*Since this paper went to press a paper by Dr. R. W. Hegner has appeared in which this *Giardia* is described. See Hegner, R. W. 1926. *Giardia beckeri* n. sp from the ground squirrel and *Endamæba dipodomysi* n sp. from the kangaroo rat Jour. Paras. 12: 203-206.

for critical study, and the specimens were very scarce. Consequently a description of this species (*Hexamitus* or *Urophagus*) must be delayed until more suitable material is obtained. Twenty ground squirrels in all were examined for protozoa. All save one harbored infinite numbers of protozoa in the cœcum. This one had only a light infection.

The technique consisted of a careful microscopic examination of thin emulsions of the cœcal contents in normal salt solution. Permanent prepared slides were made by Heidenhain's iron-hæmatoxylin staining after fixation in Schaudinn's solution.

Chilomastix magna sp. nov. This protozoan was found in all twenty ground squirrels. The shape is essentially like that of *Chilomastix mesnili* from man, pyriform with three flagella at the broadly rounded anterior end. There is often a tuft of short bristly cuticular projections in the region of the flagella (Fig. 1). It may be present in either living or stained material, and is not a fixation artefact. Fixed and stained individuals measured from 10 to 21.6 micra in length and from 6 to 11 micra in width, the average width being about 9 micra. The length of *Chilomastix mesnili*, as given by Kofoid and Swezy (1920) is from 9.6 to 15 micra in stained preparations. The writer measured a number of *Chilomastix mesnili* on slides which he had prepared, and found a range of from 7 to 11 micra. When one considers that twenty out of thirty specimens of *Chilomastix magna* measured from 15 to 21.6 micra, it will be seen that this flagellate is almost twice as long as the one found in the intestine of man.

A study of the cytology of this protozoan promised to be particularly interesting because of the discrepancies between the accounts of *Chilomastix mesnili* by Kofoid and Swezy (1920) and Dobell and O'Connor (1921). The latter authors are particularly outspoken in flatly denying the existence of certain cell structures which the former claim to have seen. Without desiring to become in any way involved in the controversies of these writers, the writer must state that his observations agree more nearly with those of Kofoid and Swezy, although his interpretations may differ in certain respects. The morphology of the free form, cyst, and dividing individuals will be described.

The nucleus of the free form lies in the extreme anterior end of

the body. Measurements indicate a diameter of from 3 to 4.5 micra. Anterior to the nucleus lie a number of deeply staining granules, concerning the affinities of which there is so much controversy. Kofoid and Swezy's account of the arrangement of these granules based largely upon their observations of the cyst is somewhat as follows. There lies upon the nuclear membrane a centrosome, which is connected by the "nuclear rhizoplast" with a "primary blepharoplast." This blepharoplast is joined to the "secondary blepharoplast" by means of the "transverse rhizoplast." Finally, another thin thread-like line connects the secondary and tertiary blepharoplast. Directed somewhat posteriorly from the secondary and tertiary rhizoplast are two deeply staining fibrils, the one (parastyle) supporting the left lip of the cytostome, the other (parabasal body) supporting the right lip. Two of the three anterior flagella take their origin in the primary blepharoplast, one from the secondary. From the tertiary rhizoplast there arises, in addition to the "parabasal body," the cytostomal flagellum and a thread enclosing the mouth, the "peristomal fiber." The cytostomal flagellum vibrates along the edge of an undulating membrane. Dobell and O'Connor deny the existence of any integrated fibrillar system (neuromotor system), or connections between the granules at the anterior end, claiming in addition that there are six granules instead of four. Furthermore, in regard to the peristomal fiber they state, "We believe there is no such fibre, and that the mouth is not situated in this position."

Despite long and painstaking study the writer was not able to make out all the details of the granule complex with the positiveness of Kofoid and Swezy. That there is an integrated fibrillar system connecting the granules, however, the writer has no doubt. The rhizoplast connecting the blepharoplasts designated by Kofoid as secondary and tertiary is especially prominent in most specimens because of its thickness and deeply-staining qualities (Fig. 12). A fine rhizoplast running from a granule on the nuclear membrane was occasionally recognized. The best evidence for the fibrillar system, however, comes from the dividing stages, which will be described below. The writer was not able to make out the exact affinities of the flagella, because of the

impossibility of resolving the granules in the granule complex. Fig. 12 represents one of the best observations which the writer was able to make.

A structure was noted which Dobell and O'Connor neither mention nor figure, but which resembled very much Kofoid and Swezy's figures of the peristomial fibril enclosing a more deeply-shaded granular area, the cytostome. In *Chilomastix magna*, this structure takes its origin in the blepharoplast complex, and passes posteriorly just dorsal to the cytostome and right supporting fibril (Kofoid's "parabasal body"), if we consider the cytostome to be on the ventral side. It usually extends far beyond the posterior curvature of this fibril into the posterior region of the body (Fig. 1). It appears to be surrounded by a fibril. This structure, however, has three dimensions, and is from one third to one half as deep as broad, as proved by polar views of a number of flagellates standing on end. So what appears to be a fibril, is in reality a membrane marking the boundary between this structure and the remaining cytoplasm. Rarely this structure appears to adhere to the right supporting fibril (Fig. 2). In others, no connection between the two is evident (Fig. 1). There is no connection between this body and the cytostomal flagellum, which lies between the right and left supporting fibrils (Fig. 1, 2, 12).

What is the function of this organelle? Is it an oral structure associated with the mechanism for the intake of food? It is not visible in the unstained living specimens, so this point could not be determined. Is it a reserve food supply? Failure to stain it either with iodine or *intra vitam* with Janus green gives no clue. For the present the writer prefers to call it a "parabasal body," because of its non-committal significance of anything as to function, although it does not stain with Janus green, which Shipley (1916) found would color the parabasal body of *Trypanosoma lewisi* and Becker (1923) found would color the parabasal bodies of *Crithidia* and *Herpetomonas*, suggesting their mitochondrial nature. Besides this structure, no other organelle resembling a peristomial fiber was seen. Might it not be that this body is much shorter in *Chilomastix mesnili*, and that the sharpness of its limiting membrane led Kofoid and Swezy to call it a peristomial fiber?

The cyst is typically lemon-shaped (Fig. 6). The size is markedly constant, every mature cyst measuring almost exactly 10 by 7.5 micra except one, which measured 12 by 8 micra. By way of comparison the writer measured twelve cysts of *Chilomastix mesnili*. These measured from 6 by 5 micra up to 8 by 7 micra. This indicates that the cyst of *Chilomastix magna* is somewhat larger than that of *Chilomastix mesnili*, but there is not the difference in size that there is in the free stages. The cyst contains a nucleus, the cytostomal structures, and the "parabasal body."

There is nowhere in the literature anything like a complete account of the cell division of *Chilomastix*. For this reason it was thought to be quite worth while to spend a large amount of time searching for dividing specimens, although they were extremely rare. As a result a fairly complete account of the process can now be given, although not all points have been cleared up.

What the writer conceives to be the resting nucleus is represented in Figs. 1, 7, and 12. There may be one blob of chromatin on the inner anterior surface of the nuclear membrane, or there may be one blob here and another in the posterior portion of the nucleus (Figs. 1, 12), or there may be a large number of smaller granules lying on the nuclear membrane (Fig. 7). There is a cloud of chromatin granules scattered thruout the entire nucleus. Very often at this time a small deeply staining spot, an endobasal body, or intranuclear kinetic element is visible (Figs. 7, 12).

A little later the granules become more concentrated and form a large endosome (Figs. 2, 9, 10). Careful study of this endosome shows that it is sometimes a concentration of granules (Fig. 2) and sometimes apparently a "chromatin knot" (Figs. 9, 10). Often a deeply-staining intradesmose is visible at the points where it passes from the endosome to the blobs of chromatin at one or both poles of the nucleus.

The endosomal chromatin becomes resolved into chromosomes, which appear to be dumbbell-shaped. It was not possible to count them exactly in any case, but the number is near ten. Strangely enough, the intradesmose could not be observed at this stage. Perhaps it lay too close to the nuclear membrane, for which there is some evidence to be given later.

The chromosomes arrange themselves in an equatorial plate, and a spindle forms. Fig. 11 is an exact drawing of the spindle at the time it first comes into evidence. The poles of the spindle are the blobs of chromatin at the poles of the nucleus in which the intradesmose had previously terminated. There is some evidence that these blobs of chromatin are not the centrioles, but that the centriole lies within them; *e.g.*, Fig. 2 shows what appear to be two centrioles lying against the chromatin blobs.

As mitosis progresses the spindle elongates considerably, the nucleus elongating simultaneously and the nuclear membrane commencing to dissolve. The polar blobs of chromatin disappear, leaving the tiny centrioles at the poles of the spindle (Fig. 3). The chromosomes of the dividing equatorial plate of the early anaphase become massed together so that it is not possible to count them, although in some cases they may appear as a mass of discrete granules.

The oral apparatus of the parent cell (right and left supporting fibrils, blepharoplasts, etc.) has degenerated. The centrioles divide, leaving connecting rhizoplasts between each centriole and its daughter blepharoplast. The daughter blepharoplast divides at least once (perhaps more), and from the products of the division the left and right supporting fibrils of the mouth grow out. The intradesmose is in evidence along the nuclear membrane, connecting the centrosomes at the poles of the spindle.

The intrazonal spindle fibers disappear in the late anaphase, and the two halves of the equatorial plate are disconnected from one another (Fig. 4). The remains of the spindle attaches the chromatin mass to the centrioles, while a fine rhizoplast connects the centriole with the blepharoplast complex. Fig. 4 appears inconsistent with Fig. 3 in regard to the points of attachment of the intradesmose which traverses the cell. It is extremely difficult to resolve the granules exactly, and the writer has put the intradesmose in each case exactly where it appeared to be. At this stage the "parabasal body" has appeared, and lies in its permanent position, just dorsal to the right supporting fiber.

The cell constricts in the middle (Fig. 5). The two daughter cells then reconstruct themselves, each with a complete new set of cell organelles. During division no food particles can be seen in the cell protoplasm.

Trichomonas muris (Hartmann) var. *citelli*. This flagellate was encountered in only three out of twenty ground squirrels. It is a common inhabitant of the cœcum of albino, house, and wild mice. The form from the ground squirrel, however, so closely resembles in its important features Wenrich's (1924) description of *T. muris* that it is considered to be at least a variety of this species. Furthermore, the chromosome count agrees with the number which Wenrich found in *T. muris*. The size of *T. muris* on prepared slides, according to Wenrich, ranges from 8 to 22 micra, with an average of 12.9 micra. The average of the body length of 100 individuals from the ground squirrel, not including the protruding axostyle, was 17 micra, somewhat larger than Wenrich's measurements.

The reader is referred to Wenrich's excellent account for the detailed description of this species. A rhizoplast connecting the nucleus and blepharoplast was seen by the writer in some cases. Andrews (1925) also saw it in *T. termopsidis*. One other rather unimportant respect in which the form from the ground squirrel differs from Wenrich's description is in the arrangement of the "inner row of chromatic granules." In the form studied by the writer the granules in this area constitute a field rather than a linear series (Fig. 13). In some specimens a small granular body was noted near the anterior end, although Schaudinn's fixative was used (Fig. 13). This was interpreted to be the parabasal body, as described by Wenrich. What the writer saw was evidently a residue left after the mitochondrial substance had been dissolved out. This parabasal body, however, does not stain *intra vitam* with Janus green.

Large numbers of dividing individuals were found. The writer has nothing to add to Wenrich's account. Several good chromosome counts were made at the anaphase (Fig. 14) and prophase (Fig. 15). The number was six, in agreement with Wenrich. There seemed to be in most cases a fairly definite size range for the prophase chromosomes from one large chromosome down to a very small one (Fig. 15). Multiple mitosis or somatella formation of the nature of that observed and described by Kofoid (1915) was not seen in this material.

Trichomonas sp.? This small flagellate was present usually in

large numbers in all ground squirrels examined. The body is elliptical, with a pointed posterior end, due to the protruding axostyle (Fig. 19). Length is from 6.5 to 10 micra without the axostyle which protrudes from 2 to 3 micra beyond the body. The nucleus lies at the anterior end. In the resting stage there is a round central chromatic endosome, an achromatic nuclear membrane, with a space between the endosome and membrane which is clear except for a sprinkling of fine granules. The endosome is prominently visible even in living unstained specimens. A large deeply staining basal body lies anterior to the nucleus. From it arise an axostyle which curves about the nucleus, and passes to the posterior end of the body; three anterior flagella; and a fourth flagellum which is directed toward the posterior. It lies in close contact with the body for about half the length of the cell, and the remaining length trails behind.

Typically, members of the genus *Trichomonas* possess an undulating membrane with a chromatic basal rod; e.g., *Trichomonas muris*. This flagellate possesses no true undulating membrane, since the posterior flagellum which is the homologue of the marginal flagellum lies close to the body. It vibrates only slightly in the anterior region, while the free posterior end is quite active. Stained preparations show no chromatic basal rod. Whether these differences are sufficient to create a new genus is doubtful. Stained preparations often show a large open cytosome (Fig. 17). In living preparations it is usually closed.

Very few dividing forms were found, and hence no chromosome counts were made. Sometimes this flagellate is parasitized by a Sphaerita (Fig. 19).

Tetratrichomastix citelli sp. nov. This flagellate (Figs. 16, 18) was present in nineteen of the twenty ground squirrels. The body is irregularly pyriform, but approximately bilaterally symmetrical, due to a slight indentation just behind the anterior tip of the body from which the flagella leave the body. The axostyle protrudes from the posterior tip of the body. The body length, exclusive of axostyle, ranges from 7 to 13 micra. The axostyle often extends 2 to 4 micra beyond the body. The flagella are five in number, four anterior ones which beat backwards in unison, with lashing strokes, and a *schleppgeisel*, which

does not come so far forward as the others in its lashings. The flagella arise from a blepharoplast situated on the anterior surface of the nucleus. It is almost impossible to count the flagella in the living cell, because of their peculiar movements. A large number of favorable observations in the stained specimens makes it fairly certain that the number is five.

The nucleus is round, and possesses a tiny endobasal body embedded in a mass of granules (Fig. 16). Sometimes only a larger deeply staining endosome is seen (Fig. 18). About the nucleus is sometimes seen a cloud of granules (Fig. 16).

The axostyle passes from the anterior end to the posterior tip. It stains lightly. A number of favorable observations show that it originates in the basal granule.

A cytostome is often indistinctly seen at the anterior end.

Hexamitus pulcher sp. nov. This *Hexamitus*, found in eighteen of the twenty ground squirrels, is characterized by the presence in the living cell of a large number of slightly refringent spherules which stain *intra vitam* green with Janus green at first, then later are reduced to the red. These granules dissolve out for the most part in Schaudinn's fixative, although the cytoplasm of the stained cells is markedly granular (Figs. 20, 21). It was because of the wealth of mitochondria and the beauty of the vital stain with Janus green that the specific name *pulcher* was given. The body is irregularly oval, bilaterally symmetrical, and somewhat plastic. The size does not vary much from eight to ten micra in length by six or seven micra in width.

The flagella are eight in number, the anterior pair projecting almost at right angles to the body and vibrating actively in the living cell. Two other pairs are inclined to wrap themselves about the body giving it the deceptive appearance of possessing several undulating membranes. The posterior pair leaves the body at the posterior tip. Between them the posterior tips of the axostyles protrude.

Stained slides show the cell structures more plainly (Figs. 20, 21). In the anterior region on each side of the median line is an elongated, deeply staining, nucleus. Between the nuclei lie a pair of blepharoplasts from which the flagella arise, altho sometimes there seem to be two pairs. A pair of axostyles in the axis

of the body terminate at about the location of the blepharoplasts. In the anterior tip of the cell is a dark spot connected to each axostyle by a fine fiber.

SUMMARY.

The intestines of twenty ground squirrels (*Citellus tridecemlineatus*) were examined for protozoa. The following species of protozoa were found to be present: *Giardia* sp.?, *Endamæba citelli*, *Chilomastix magna* sp. nov., *Trichomonas muris* var. *citelli*, *Trichomonas* sp.?, *Tetratrichomastix* (*Eutrichomastix*) *citelli* sp. nov., and *Hexamitus pulcher* sp. nov. The first was found in the small intestine, all the others in the cœcum. In this paper all the above species except the first two are described, particular attention having been given to the morphology of the free *Chilomastix magna* and to its division phases.

So far as is known, all these protozoa are commensals. Whether or not they assist in the digestion of cellulose, which is said to take place very largely in the cœca of certain animals, is unknown.

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EXPLANATION OF PLATE.

× ca. 1950.

FIG. 1. *Chilomastix magna*, free form, showing a tuft of cortical projections in flagellar region, and dorsal view of the cytostomal structures. Large granular body dorsal to cytostomal organelles is the "parabasal body."

FIG. 2. *Chilomastix magna*, free form, dorsal view with "parabasal body" apparently following right supporting fiber of cytostome.

FIGS. 3, 4, 5. *Chilomastix magna*, free form, in division.

FIG. 6. *Chilomastix magna*, cyst.

FIGS. 7 TO 11. (Not according to scale.) Various nuclear appearances found in *Chilomastix magna*.

FIG. 12. (Not according to scale.) Dorsal view of nucleus, integrated fibrillar system and cytostomal structures of *Chilomastix magna*.

FIG. 13. *Trichomonas muris* var. *citelli*.

FIG. 14. *Trichomonas muris* var. *citelli*, dividing, nucleus in anaphase.

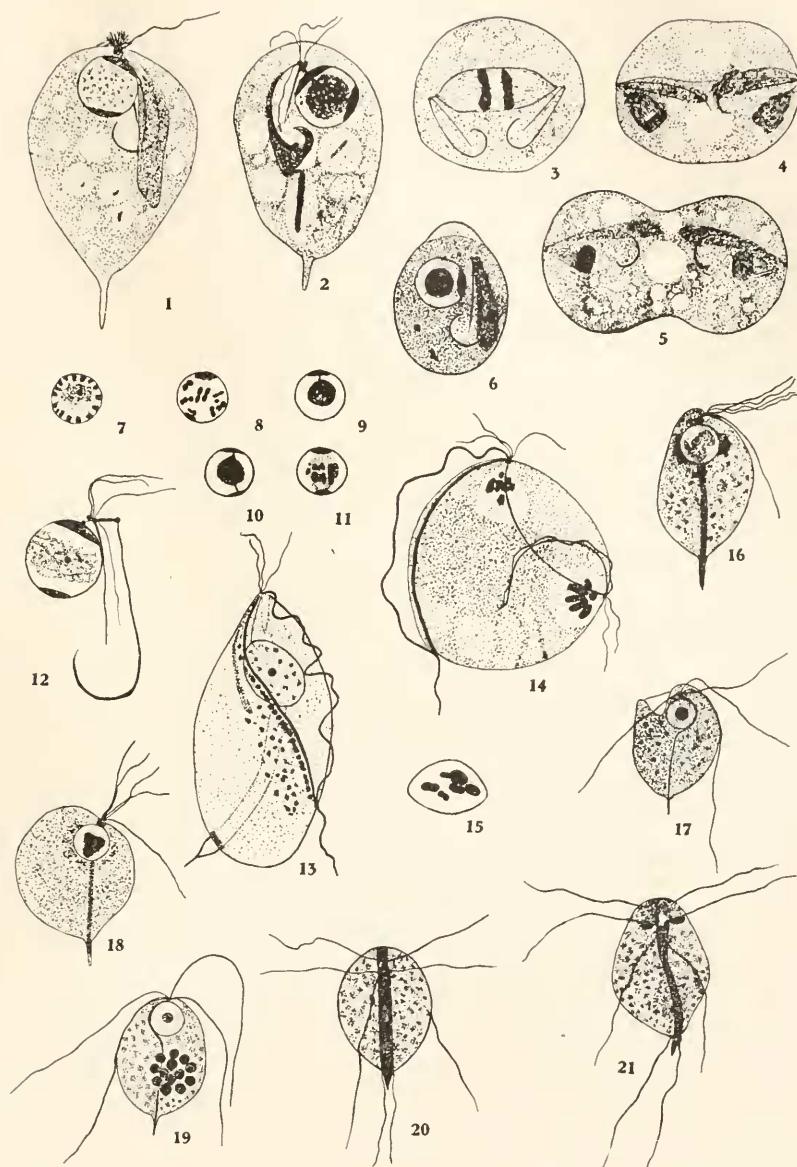
FIG. 15. *Trichomonas muris*, prophase nucleus of *Trichomonas muris* showing six chromosomes.

FIGS. 16, 18. *Tetra*, free forms.

FIGS. 17, 19. *Trichomonas* sp.? Individual in Fig. 19 infected by a *Sphaerita*.

FIG. 20. *Hexamitus pulcher*, side view.

FIG. 21. *Hexamitus pulcher*, front view.



VARIATION IN THE NUMBER OF FIN-RAYS IN THREE
SPECIES OF *FUNDULUS* OF THE WOODS
HOLE REGION.

ROBERT PAYNE BIGELOW.

While engaged in the study of the feeding habits of young fishes in August, 1924, the author collected in Woods Hole Harbor a number of young Fundulus having a total length of from 9 to 51 mm. All except the youngest of these fish showed the darkly pigmented vertical bands, 9 to 11 in number, characteristic of the young of all three of the species of Fundulus known to occur in the vicinity of Woods Hole. (Jordan & Evermann, '96; Newman, '07; Sumner et al., '13.)

The color markings give no clue to specific identity at this stage, and the anatomical proportions, changing as they do with growth, are equally useless for identification. On the other hand, certain supporting structures, such as vertebræ and fin-rays, are developed at an early stage and remain constant in number throughout life. Therefore it was hoped that the number of fin-rays would furnish a means of assigning these young fish to their proper species.

The number of fin-rays in the dorsal and anal fins of the smallest fishes in the collection (total length 9 and 12 mm.) were found to be D 9, A 7 and 9. The two next in size (14 and 20 mm.) had in both D 11, A 10. All the others had D 13 to 15, A 9 to 11, of these seven out of ten had more than 13 dorsal rays.

Turning to Jordan and Evermann '96 for identification, the fin-ray formulæ for the species known to occur at Woods Hole were found to be given as follows: *F. heteroclitus*, D 11, A 10 or 11; *F. majalis*, D 12, A 10; *F. diaphanus*, D 13, A 11. From the fin-formulæ alone it might have been supposed that the specimens in question were *F. diaphanus*. But this was improbable because they were taken in the pure sea water of Woods Hole Harbor, whereas *F. diaphanus* is supposed to inhabit only brackish or fresh water. On the other hand, the number of rays in the dorsal fins was much greater than the numbers given for the two purely marine species.

Therefore it was decided to make a fresh examination of the fin structure in the adults of the three local species, and a thorough search of the literature on this subject. The results of this investigation are given in the present paper.

The divergence of the present results from those obtained by previous investigators may be due to the difficulties of observation. The fin-rays of *Fundulus* are all of the soft kind. Each ray consists of two parallel columns of segments bilaterally arranged. In the anal fin the first and last of the rays are unbranched. The other rays are branched dichotomously, one half to one third of the distance from the base, and usually the longer branches are bifurcated again. In both the dorsal and the anal fins the ray bordering the posterior margin is frequently very slender and easily overlooked. In some specimens there are two very slender posterior rays closely united at the base.

In preserved specimens that have been hardened with the fins flexed, the folding of the fin makes it very difficult to observe the posterior rays. In the present investigation observations were made with a binocular microscope and transmitted light. Some of the specimens were examined while fresh. Most of them were killed and preserved in 5 per cent. neutral formalin in sea water, after being anaesthetized by a few crystals of chloral hydrate inserted in the mouth. The specimens to be killed were placed in the formalin one at a time and the dorsal and anal fins were quickly grasped with forceps and held in an extended position until sufficiently hardened. In order that the specimens should lie flat in the dish during the remainder of the hardening process, the air-bladder was punctured by an incision in the body-wall just above the tip of the pectoral fin and parallel to its dorsal edge. By this method specimens were preserved with the dorsal and anal fins in the best posture for observation.

In the transparent fins of *F. diaphanus* prepared in this way and viewed with the binocular microscope, it was easy to count the fin-rays when illuminated by transmitted light. In the two other species pigmentation of the fin often obscured the rays. This is especially true of the densely pigmented dorsal fin of *F. heteroclitus*, on which it was at times necessary to use a dissecting needle.

The anal fin of the females of *F. heteroclitus* presents another difficulty. On the anterior edge of this fin, and extending from its base nearly half way to the tip, is a thick fold of skin enclosing the oviduct (as stated by Jordan and Evermann '96). The thickened skin extends backward over the bases of the first and second rays, at least, and may make a count impossible without dissection.

The adult material for this study consisted of 40 males and 37 females of *F. heteroclitus* and 10 males and 22 females of *F. majalis*, both species from a small salt water pond connected with the head of Woods Hole Great Harbor, and also of 10 males and 16 females of *F. diaphanus* from Oyster Pond (fresh water) in Falmouth, Massachusetts.

Although the number of specimens is too small for statistical accuracy, the results obtained show that the populations represented have considerably more variation in the number of fin-rays than is indicated by the previously published descriptions of these three species.

Full descriptions have been published by Bean, '92 and '03, Garman '95, Jordan and Evermann '96, Smith '07. In the following table the results of the present investigation are given in comparison with those of the authors just mentioned.

Species.	Present Results.				Previous Authors.			
	Number.	Fin.	Number of Fin-rays.		Bean '92 & '03.	Garman.	Jordan & Evermann.	Smith.
			Range.	Most Frequent.				
<i>F. heteroclitus</i>	77	D. 11-14 A. 10-11 D. 14-16	12 11 14 or 15	12.1 10.7 14.6	11 11 13-14	11-13 10-12 14-13	11 10-11 12	11 10-11 12-14
<i>F. majalis</i>	32	A. 11-12 D. 13-16	11 14	11.1 14.4	11 14	11-10 14 (13-15)	10 13	10-11 13
<i>F. diaphanus</i>	26	A. 11-13	12	12.1	12	12-11	11	11

Each one of the three species has on the average a characteristic fin-pattern. In *F. heteroclitus* 12 is the most frequent number of dorsal rays, but 11 and 13 are not infrequent. One specimen only

was found with 14 rays in the dorsal fin. In the anal fin 10 or 11 rays were found, the latter number having more than twice the frequency of the former.

Turning to *F. majalis*, we find a much greater number of dorsal rays, 14 and 15 being almost equally frequent. Three specimens had 16 dorsal rays. No specimen was found with as few as 13. In the anal fin the number 11 is very constant. In 32 specimens, none was found with less than 11, and 3 only with one more ray.

The third species, *F. diaphanus*, resembles the second in the structure of the dorsal fin, having usually 14 rays with considerable variation on both sides of the mean. But in its anal fin this species differs from both the others in having more rays. It almost invariably has 12 anal rays, rarely one more or one less.

Comparing the numbers reported in the literature with my findings, it will be seen that Garman's statements agree most closely with my results. The figures given in the standard manuals for the identification of fishes, like Jordan and Evermann's great work, are generally lower than mine.

The differences may be due to the difficulties of observation under less favorable conditions, or they may be due to peculiarities of the local races inhabiting the waters about Woods Hole.

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LIFE HISTORY OF *PRORODON GRISEUS*.

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INTRODUCTION.

Prorodon griseus, a Holotrichous ciliate, is somewhat plastic and variable in shape. When distended it is about two and one half times as long as wide, with its anterior end slightly wider (Figs. 1, 3). The oral aperture is sub-terminal. The anal pore is at the extreme posterior end. The pharynx is supported by twenty to thirty rod like structures. The contractile vacuole is postero-terminal. The delicate cuticular membrane is finely and closely striate longitudinally. No trichocysts are present. The cilia over the entire body are uniform in length, except at the anterior end where they are slightly longer. These longer cilia are quite active during the process of feeding. A layer of deeply stained bodies are found in the outer border of the ectoplasm. The locomotion of the expanded forms is rather smooth, rapid and straight forward, turning on their long axis. When contracted the motion is chiefly rotary.

The purpose of the following paper is to give a brief account of the more important features in the life history of *P. griseus*.

NATURAL HISTORY.

The material was collected from small rain pools, more especially from small hog wallows, which is one of their most favorable habitats for rapid growth and multiplication. When present in these small rain pools they are usually found in the surface film in rather large clumps, instead of being distributed throughout the water. When these small rain pools completely dry up abundance of encysted forms are found in the dry sediment on the sides and bottom. Collections were made at regular intervals (including encysted forms from the dry sediment), during the summer months of 1925. The material was placed in finger bowls with tap water added from time to time to counteract

the evaporation. Few free swimming forms were found when collected. But within twenty four hours great numbers would escape from the cysts. Conjugation occurred immediately at the beginning of the free swimming stage. The period of conjugation lasts from three to four or more hours. The ex-conjugants remained in the active swimming stage indefinitely, dependent upon external conditions.

Encystment is quite common, it may occur at any period in their life history and serves more for protection in carrying them over adverse conditions, due to extreme temperature or drought. The cysts in many cases are large, spacious and permit freedom of motion within (Fig. 2a). In the formation of the cysts the animal always contracts, assumes a spherical shape and rotates rapidly while secreting the cyst. The secretion is evenly distributed by the aid of the beating cilia. The animal usually forms its cyst in contact with some fine sediment, which acts more as a background. The cysts show considerable variation as to their flexibility and thickness (Fig. 2a-f). The cysts are either thin or temporary and thick or permanent. The animal may remain within the temporary cyst but a short time, then escape, and immediately begin the formation of a new cyst. Large numbers of cysts are often found in immediate contact and form a sort of network, as in Fig. 2. The animal just before escaping from the cyst becomes unusually active presses against one side of the cyst wall and breaks through. The permanent cysts differ from the temporary cysts, in that they are thicker, due to the secretion of new concentric layers within the first, until there is little space left for the animal within (Fig. 2f). After the permanent cyst is completed the animal becomes quiescent and remains in this condition indefinitely, at least until internal reorganization is complete.

In studying the formation of the cysts under the cover slip, it was found that the temporary cysts were often formed within thirty minutes, while the thick or permanent cysts required from three to five hours for their complete formation. In some of the permanent cyst under observation the animal remained quiescent for three days or more and then began a very rapid rotary motion within and soon escaped. The animal evidently must secrete

some substance which helps to dissolve the cyst wall, as it becomes thinner before their escape. No experiments were made to determine how long the encysted animals were able to survive under adverse conditions. A very small part of their life history, however, is passed in the free-living condition, even under favorable conditions as verified in the laboratory.

MATERIAL AND METHODS.

The material was fixed at various stages in the Life history of the animal. Bouin's fluid was found to give satisfactory results. The animals were removed from the cultures with the aid of a pipette avoiding excess water, and spurted into the tubes with the killing fluid. The centrifuge was quite helpful in concentrating the animals at one end of the tube. The specimens were stained in Delafield's hematoxylin or Tulodin blue. Either stain gave good results. Erythrosin was added to the ninety-five per cent. alcohol for cytoplasmic differentiation. The animals were then dehydrated, cleared in xylol and mounted in balsam. For sections the animals were imbedded in paraffine, sectioned and stained on the slide. The sections were quite helpful in checking the results as found in the whole mounts.

BINARY FISSION.

Reproduction by binary fission is quite common. It may occur during encystment (Fig. 2d), but it is found more abundant during the free active stages. Transverse division in the encysted stage is rather difficult to verify in the whole mounts, since the division of the cytoplasm as a rule can not be recognized except in sections. Division in the free-swimming stage is more distinct and the different stages can be followed step by step. The animal shortens somewhat on its long axis. The nuclear activities (Figs. 4-6) are similar to those of the encysted forms. The micro-nucleus as is common in ciliates divides first before division of the macro-nucleus. The macro-nucleus varies considerable in shape from a spherical to a somewhat elongated or curved condition. The elongated nucleus in binary fission often becomes constricted by a nuclear cleft without any further elongation and half going to either new daughter cell (Fig. 6).

Or again the macro-nucleus elongates more and more until the halves are connected by a mere thread and finally constricts when the separation of the cytoplasm in the formation of the daughter cells is complete (Fig. 5).

The new pharynx with its rod-like structures and the new contractile vacuole are formed before the nuclei divide. The entire process of binary fission requires about one and a half hours for completion. Binary fission occurs at any period in the life cycle of the animal. But the greater number of divisions were found to occur after conjugation during the active feeding stage. But if the conjugants encyst immediately after separation, due to adverse conditions, binary fission occurs within the cyst (Fig. 2d).

NUTRITION.

The direct observation of the feeding process in *Prorodon* is rather difficult, due to the rotary motion of the individuals when stationary or when swimming. The animal feeds chiefly upon bacteria and other small unicellular organisms. The origin, formation and fate of the food vacuoles is comparable to that of other ciliates where it is more easily followed. The animal at times is so gorged with food vacuoles, that a cytological study is impossible, since the body appears as a mass of indistinctly stained objects. Many of the individuals during feeding increase from two to three times in volume before binary fission occurs. This increase in size however, is due more to expansion than growth. The large mass of food vacuoles within the organism undergoes a constant movement in one direction for short intervals and then moves to and fro as a sort of churning. This constant circulation of the food vacuoles no doubt is greatly facilitated by the constant rotary motion of the organism. The food within the vacuoles undergoes a rapid digestion or liquefaction giving the vacuoles a clear content, which soon passes out into the cytoplasm. The food vacuoles as a rule are quite large, due to the great amount of fluid surrounding the food. Thus giving the appearance of a vesicle with a clear border and a dark center. The vacuoles finally collapse and the indigestible particles are voided at the posterior end through the anal pore.

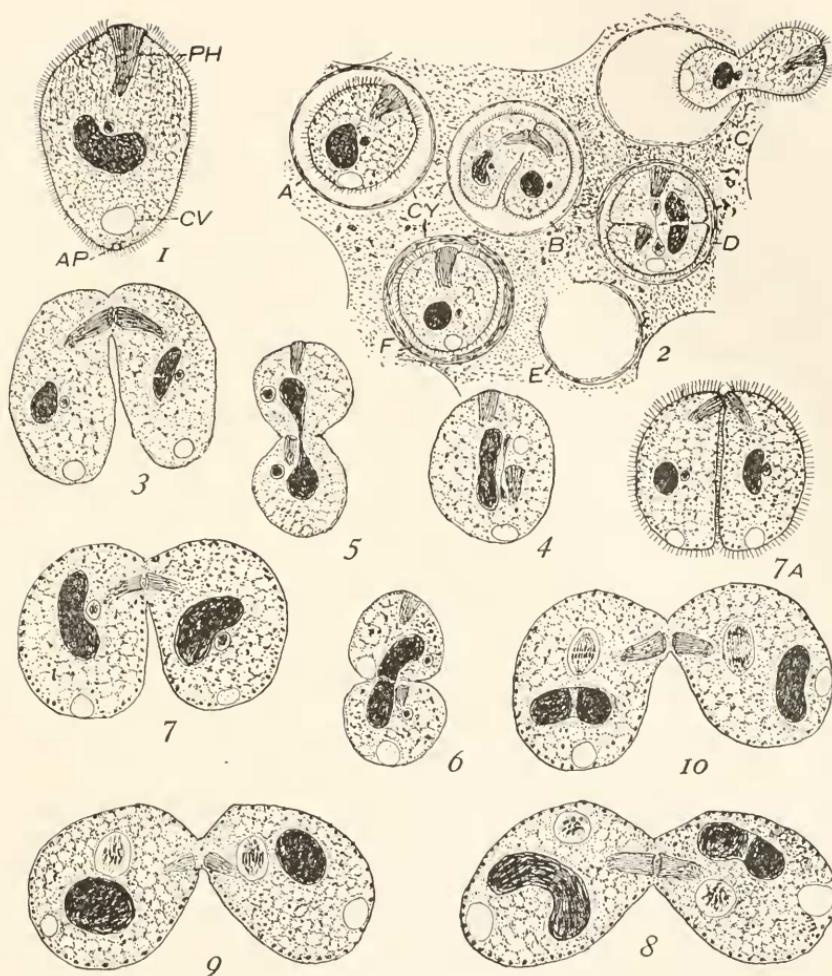


FIG. 1. Whole mount drawing of *Prorodon griseus* to show structure. *ph.*, pharynx; *c. v.*, contractile vacuole; *a. p.*, anal pore.

FIG. 2. Encysted forms; *a.*, temporary cyst; *b.*, conjugants within cyst; *c.*, escape from cyst; *d.*, binary fission within cyst; *e.*, cyst shell; *f.*, individual within permanent cyst.

FIG. 3. Expanded conjugants.

FIGS. 4, 5 AND 6. Different stages in the binary fission of free forms.

FIG. 7. Conjugating individuals, early stage.

FIG. 7a. Early conjugation before union of conjugants is effected.

FIGS. 8, 9 AND 10. Micronuclei in different stages of the first maturation division.

CONJUGATION.

Conjugation occurs shortly after the animals escape from the cysts. In the early stages of conjugation the conjugants become spherical and press closely against each other, giving the semblance of binary fission. The animals rotate very rapidly on their long axes, slightly moving back and forth on the sides in contact (Fig. 7a). The anterior ends of the conjugants are slightly turned towards each other, so that the free end of either pharynx comes in contact. A small cytoplasmic bridge is then formed between the two individuals in close proximity and in front of either sub-terminal oral aperture. Thus the conjugation is terminal or end conjugation instead of lateral which is more common in the ciliates (Figs. 3, 8). The animals feed but little during conjugation. The conjugants often vary considerable in size. The period of conjugation lasts about four hours. When the union of the two animals is complete they elongate, with their anterior ends turned towards each other, and swim rapidly through the water, rotating on their long axes (Fig. 3). This method of activity may continue until conjugation is complete. But the greater number of conjugants observed during the process, became quiescent usually in contact with some sediment. They assumed a spherical form and rotated quite rapidly. While in this position a temporary cyst is often formed and the conjugation is completed within the cyst (Fig. 2b). If the cyst however, with the conjugants is disturbed they may escape before conjugation is complete and again move freely through the culture. A second temporary cyst is seldomly formed. This process of conjugation within a cyst is often taken for binary fission and that the two daughter cells produced within the cyst conjugated before escaping. This however, is not the case, since the first steps in conjugation of all individuals, as observed under the microscope, took place in the free swimming stage. The temporary encystment of the conjugants when it occurs is secondary and not essential except in sudden adverse conditions, since it does not occur in normal conditions if the forms are continually agitated during conjugation.

The relation of the conjugants in a straight line with their anterior ends united as the figures indicate, is due more to their

contraction during fixation (Figs. 8, 16). The nuclear activities during conjugation can best be followed in the encysted forms, or better perhaps in those that have just escaped from the cysts and become expanded, since they are freer from stained food vacuoles. The single micro-nucleus in the resting stage is always situated near the macro-nucleus, but never within it (Fig. 7).

FIRST MATURATION DIVISION.

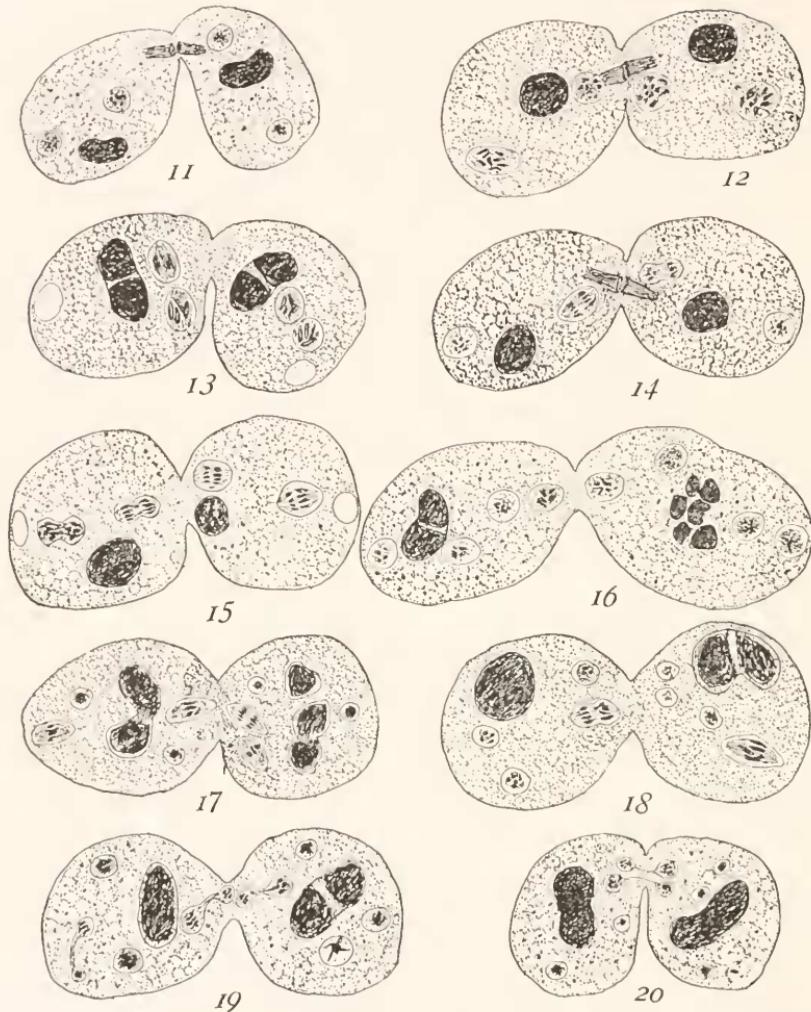
The micro-nucleus at first stains as a homogeneous mass with a dark center (Figs. 1, 7). It soon enlarges, migrates towards the anterior end and becomes vesicular with a central chromatin mass of granules on a spireme, surrounded by a large clear area (Figs. 8, 16). The chromatin becomes concentrated into eight distinct staining bodies, which become elongated (Figs. 8, 9). In the first maturation spindle fibers extend towards either pole and the eight chromosomes divide transversely, giving rise to two equal masses or daughter micro-nuclei (Figs. 10-12). Immediately after division the two micro-nuclei pass into the resting stage (Fig. 11).

SECOND MATURATION DIVISION.

The second maturation division is similar to that of the first. Both micro-nuclei in either conjugant undergo division. The micro-nuclei with their darker staining center become vesicular (Figs. 11, 12). The chromatin at first in an irregular spireme becomes condensed into four double-staining bodies (Fig. 13), which elongate in the form of four double rods. The reduction of eight single rods to four indistinct double rods can be considered as the reduction stage. The four bivalent chromosomes become arranged on the equatorial plate parallel to the long axis of the spindle, and apparently divide transversely instead of longitudinally, as indicated in Figs. 14 and 15. At the close of the second division as in the first the chromatin passes into the resting or more vesicular condition before the next division (Fig. 16).

THIRD DIVISION.

The four micro-nuclei resulting from the second division are about the same in size when first formed (Fig. 16). The four



FIGS. 11-15. Different stages in the second maturation division, showing the method of reduction of the chromosomes. Both micronuclei are dividing.

FIG. 16. Micronuclei produced by the second maturation division. The micronuclei are in the prophase stage of the third division. More than two micronuclei seldom divide in the same conjugant. The macronuclei are in the first stages of disintegration.

FIG. 17. Two of the micronuclei in either conjugant are dividing. The others are deteriorating. The macronuclei are dividing by nuclear clefts.

FIG. 18. A single micronucleus in either conjugant is dividing.

FIGS. 19 AND 20. Formation and exchange of pronuclei. The pronuclei vary in size, corresponding to moving and stationary nuclei.

micro-nuclei of either conjugant rarely undergo division. In most cases but two of the micro-nuclei divide, and occasionally but one divides. Those that do not divide show a very dark center at first, becoming fainter, taking up less and less stain and finally disappear within the cytoplasm by absorption (Figs. 17, 19). The activities in the origin, formation and division of the four chromosomes are quite distinct (Figs. 16-18). Fig. 17 shows two micro-nuclei in either conjugant in the process of division. The others are disintegrating. Fig. 18 shows but a single division in either conjugant. While in Fig. 19 there is one in one conjugant and two in the other which are dividing. The significance of this variation in the number of micro-nuclei in the third division is still an open question for explanation. The inactive micro-nuclei may persist indefinitely before their final absorption takes place. The micro-nuclei of the third division migrate toward the anterior end of either conjugant, where they complete their division and form the pronuclei (Figs. 19-21). The third division differs from the first and second maturation divisions in that there is an elongated connecting fiber between the two daughter nuclei. This connecting fiber is not entirely a part of the spindle, but is due more to the drawing out of the nuclear membrane before separation is complete (Figs. 19-21).

PRONUCLEI AND THEIR FUSION.

There is a slight difference of size in the pronuclei of either conjugant. The smaller can be considered as the moving pronucleus and the larger as the stationary pronucleus (Figs. 20-21). The interchange of the pronuclei is shown in Figs. 20 and 21. The fusion of the pronuclei occurs near the anterior ends of the conjugants (Figs. 22-23). In the formation of the conjugation nucleus (amphinucleus), the pronuclei at first are spherical and vesicular (Fig. 22). But later become slightly elongated. The sides of the nuclear membranes in contact may persist for awhile and prevent the direct fusion of the chromatin, giving the appearance of a double fusion nucleus (Fig. 23).

CLEAVAGE AND FORMATION OF NEW NUCLEI.

The number of divisions of the conjugation nucleus varies in different forms. It may divide once, twice, three or even four

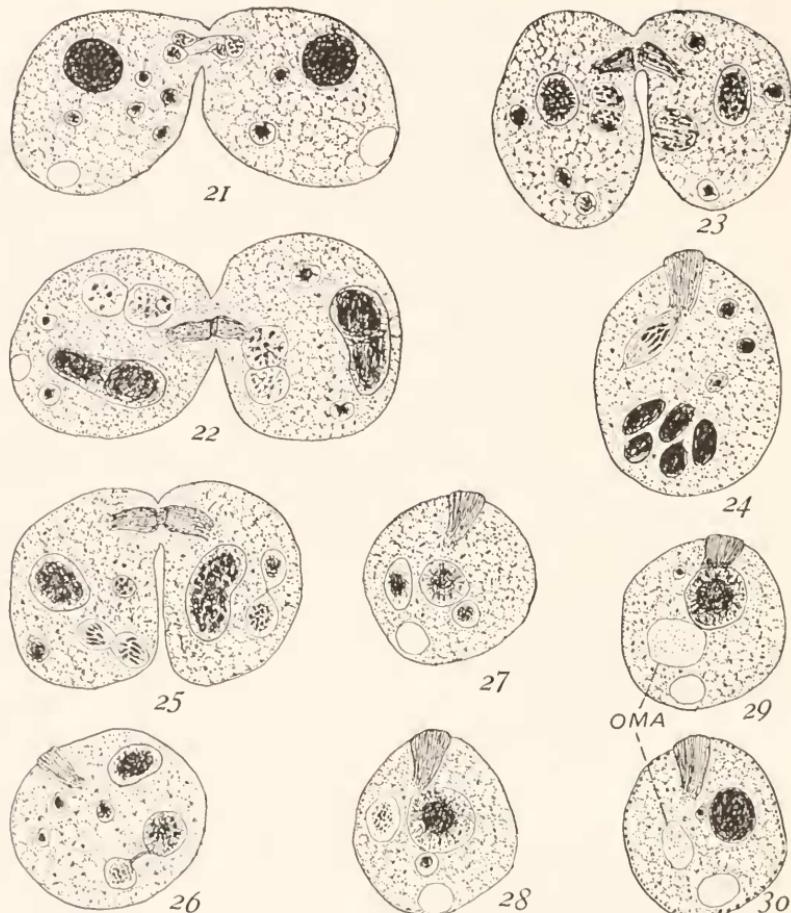


FIG. 21. Same as preceding figure with pronuclei slightly enlarged. Both macronuclei are spherical.

FIG. 22. Early stages in the fusion of the pronuclei.

FIG. 23. Later stages in the fusion of the pronuclei. The macronuclei are in their first stages of disintegration.

FIG. 24. Early cleavage stage of the fertilization nucleus. The macronucleus has divided into several parts.

FIG. 25. Later stages in the cleavage of the fertilization nucleus and the beginning of size differences in the daughter cleavage nuclei.

FIG. 26. The two cleavage nuclei remain connected by a delicate fiber in their early differentiation in the formation of the new micronucleus and the new macronucleus.

FIGS. 27-30. Different stages in the differentiation of the new micronucleus and the new macronucleus. Also the last stages in the disintegration and absorption of the old macronucleus, *o. ma.*, old macronucleus.

times, the latter case in *Bursaria truncatella*, before the differentiation of the new micro-nucleus and the new macro-nucleus occurs. In *Prorodon griseus* there is a single division. The conjugation nucleus immediately after its formation, enlarges somewhat and divides equally. The eight chromosomes are distinct and can be counted without difficulty. The two cleavage nuclei when first formed are quite similar in size and structure (Figs. 24, 25). The two daughter cleavage nuclei often remain connected by a delicate drawn out fiber, as shown in Fig. 26. One of the daughter cleavage nuclei decreases somewhat in size and produces the micro-nucleus. The other enlarges and becomes differentiated into the new macro-nucleus (Figs. 25, 26). The different stages in the formation of the new macro-nucleus are represented in Figs. 26 to 30. The chromatin network of the macro-nucleus at first is quite uniform or about the same texture throughout. The chromatin later, becomes quite distinct (concentrated) in the center, with a less dense spireme around its border (Figs. 27, 28). The dark center of chromatin enlarges until the nucleus is more or less homogeneous throughout (Figs. 29, 30). The new macro-nucleus at first is spherical, but later may assume different shapes as indicated above. The conjugants become separated during the formation of the new nuclei. According to Enriques ('08), in *Chilodon uncinatus* there is a single division of the conjugation nucleus and that the two daughter cleavage nuclei become differentiated into the new macro and the new micro-nucleus respectively.

THE OLD MACRONUCLEUS.

The macronucleus of the free swimming forms, as indicated above, is rather variable, ranging in shape from a circular form to an elongated condition, or at times it is somewhat curved. During early conjugation the nucleus when elongated shortens slightly and frequently divides into two or more parts (Figs. 16 and 17). But in most cases it does not divide at all (Figs. 20 and 21). The chromatin becomes more and more condensed and stains as a dark homogeneous body. The border of the dark staining nucleus fades out, leaving a dark center within a clear boundary (Figs. 23 and 25). Finally the dark center fragments

into many small bodies and disappears within the cytoplasm leaving a clear unstained outline (Figs. 28-30), which is later absorbed. The old macronucleus sometimes persists in the exconjugants after the formation of the new micronucleus and macronucleus are complete, before the beginning of its disintegration.

Occasionally when the macronucleus of one of the conjugants is situated at the anterior end in close proximity to the cytoplasmic bridge as in figure fifteen, it would be carried over to the opposite conjugant, due to the movement of the cytoplasm within. The two macronuclei within the same conjugant however, pass through the usual stages in their disintegration. This passing over of the macronucleus through the cytoplasmic bridge from one conjugant to the other is quite common in one of the species of *Chilodon*, where its passage can be followed in the living forms. In *Chilodon*, however, not only the macronucleus may pass in toto from one conjugant to the other, but the macronucleus of either conjugant divides, one of the resultant daughter nuclei acting as the moving nucleus and the other as the stationary nucleus, comparable to the micronuclear activities in normal conjugation.

GENERAL REMARKS.

Conjugation and binary fission of the ciliate *P. griseus*, to my knowledge, has never been described. The general activities however, in reproduction for the most part agree with the results of investigators as found in other ciliates.

One of the chief points of interest in studying the different stages in the life history of the ciliate *P. griseus*, is the direct association of binary fission and conjugation with encystment. The entire process of cell division may occur within a given cyst. While the first steps in conjugation always occur (as far as my observations go), in the free swimming forms and encysts later when the union of the two conjugants is complete. Temporary encystment however, can not be considered as essential for binary fission and conjugation. Since both may occur in the free forms. Encystment here acts more as a protection in unusual or adverse conditions. In no instance observed did the daughter cells produced by binary fission within the cyst, undergo conjugation before their escape.

P. griseus differs from most Holotrichs, in the first stages of conjugation, in that each conjugant contracts, becomes spherical, and rotates vigorously. The sides in contact are somewhat flattened, with their sub-terminal oral apertures facing each other. They remain in this spherical shape until a point of cytoplasmic union is complete (Fig. 7a). Then they elongate (Fig. 3), and move freely through the culture until conjugation is complete. A greater number of the paired conjugants as a rule remain contracted, rotate on their long axes and secrete a temporary cyst in which they remain for the greater part or the entire period in the completion of conjugation (Fig. 2b).

In this connection it may be of interest to note that no conjugating individuals were found out of doors or under wild conditions. Although many of the pools were found in unfavorable conditions due to evaporation. In fact very few free-swimming forms were found at any one time when collections were made. Most of the individuals were encysted. But when placed under laboratory conditions, within a few hours the greater number of individuals escaped from the cysts, and became quite active. This was followed immediately by a regular epidemic of conjugation. Very few single individuals could be found in the cultures. Again within three to five hours very few conjugating individuals were present. The exconjugants during their free-swimming period fed quite actively and reproduced by binary fission. In about five hours encystment again occurred. Thus beginning a new cycle. A few active forms however, can be found in the cultures at all times.

It is maintained by Calkins and others that encystment (especially where cellular reorganization occurs), and conjugation are both conducive to renewed vitality. While by Mast and others it is held that neither encystment nor conjugation have any appreciable effect in producing new vigor.

In *P. griseus* however, we have conjugation immediately following encystment or even the conjugants may encyst during their nuclear exchange and reorganization. Here we might conclude that the exconjugants would receive unusual renewed vigor and increase the fission rate. This however, is not what we find in *P. griseus*. It is true that an epidemic of cell division

takes place in the exconjugants. But if we isolate an equal number of the exconjugants that encysted during conjugation, and an equal number of those that failed to conjugate immediately after encystment. We find that the rate of fission per given number is about the same in the two isolated lots. Hence it may be safe to conclude that simultaneous encystment and conjugation do not produce renewed vigor or at least increase the fission rate in *P. griseus*.

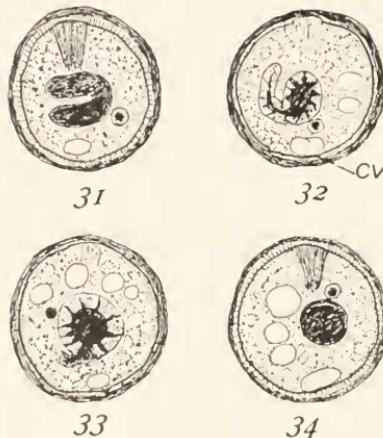


FIG. 31. *Prorodon griseus* in the early completion of the permanent cyst with all the organs in tact.

FIG. 32. Later stage of encystment with the disappearance of the cilia and the breaking up of the pharynx. The micronucleus and the contractile vacuole(?) persist. The macronucleus is in its early stage of metamorphosis, *c. v.*, contractile vacuole.

FIG. 33. The macronucleus in its later stage of metamorphosis. Several cytoplasmic vacuoles are present.

FIG. 34. Final stages of metamorphosis of macronucleus or cytoplasmic reorganization of structures during encystment. The missing organs have reformed. The new macronucleus is a direct metamorphosis of the old.

Encystment in the ciliates according to Calkins may serve a threefold purpose. That is for protection, reproduction and reorganization. In *P. griseus* there are two types of cysts which we have designated as thin or temporary and thick or permanent. The two types differ in the thickness and the compactness of their walls. The temporary cysts are quite flexible and yield to the moving ciliate within. The temporary cyst serves two purposes: first for protection against sudden adverse conditions such as

temperature, scarcity of food and evaporation. The ciliate if disturbed may remain in the temporary cyst less than an hour, and immediately after escape form a new cyst. The organism during temporary encystment does not undergo any internal changes. It maintains its spherical shape and continues to rotate. The second purpose is for reproduction by transverse division. Likewise conjugation, except the early fusion of the conjugants, may occur within the cyst. The third purpose is for the reorganization of the cell. The cyst in this case is of the permanent type, its walls being thick and dense. The individual becomes quiescent, and loses its cilia and pharynx during internal reorganization (Figs. 31-33). In this latter case the organism can not be recovered from the cyst within a period of at least four or more days or until its reorganization is complete.

The micro-nucleus and contractile vacuole persist throughout the reorganization without undergoing any appreciable change. The macro-nucleus however passes through a distinct series of changes as indicated in Figs. 31 to 34. Fig. 31 represents the condition at the beginning of encystment when all of the organs are present. The macro-nucleus is horse-shoe shaped, but in many individuals it is spherical. In the first steps of macro-nuclear metamorphosis the chromatin becomes ragged (Fig. 32), with a clear border beneath the nuclear membrane. The central region of the chromatin remains dark. Fig. 33 shows a third stage in which the chromatin has taken a more spherical shape with the ragged edges fraying out. Finally in Fig. 34 the macro-nuclear change is complete, the more central portion of the chromatin persisting as the new nucleus. The organs which were lost have reformed.

The macro-nuclear changes in *P. griseus* are similar to the conditions found by Stolte, in *Blepharisma undulans* and by Brand, in *Vorticella microstoma* and in *Styloynchia mytilus*. The macro-nuclear activities during encystment are considered by them as a cytoplasmic reorganization process since no new nuclei are formed. According to Stolte cytoplasmic depression, occasioned by adverse external conditions leads to encystment, and nuclear depression leads to conjugation. In *Didinium nastutum* however, as reported by Calkins and in *Styloynchia pustulata* as

reported by Fermor, the macro-nucleus disintegrates and a new micro-nucleus and a new macro-nucleus are formed from the old micro-nucleus, thus undergoing a complete nuclear reorganization comparable to conjugation.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

1. *Prorodon griseus* is a Holotrichous ciliate. It is recognized by its sub-terminal oral aperature, its rod like structure enclosing the pharynx, and its terminal contractile vacuole.
2. *P. griseus* has a single micronucleus and a single macro-nucleus.
3. Binary fission and conjugation occur either while encysted or in the free forms.
4. Encystment serves for protection, reproduction and re-organization.
5. Cysts are of two kinds: (a) temporary for protection during short intervals. (b) permanent for reorganization of cell and protection for long intervals, from one cycle to the next.
6. Conjugation is terminal, fusion occurring at their anterior ends. Conjugation occurs immediately after the animals escape from the cysts.
7. The animals are found encysted during the greater part of their life history. The greater number of free forms are found immediately after conjugation, during the active feeding period.
8. Encystment and conjugation in *P. griseus* have little or no effect in the production of new vigor and in the change of fission rate.
9. The old macronucleus persists during early conjugation, then disintegrates and disappears by absorption within the cytoplasm.
10. The new micronucleus and macronucleus are formed from the daughter nuclei, produced by a single division of the conjugation nucleus.
11. The reduction of chromosomes occurs in the second maturation division by a pairing of the eight chromosome in the formation of the four bivalent structures.
12. In the third division the pronuclei at first are connected by a drawn out fiber.

13. The pronuclei elongate slightly during their process of fusion.

14. In cellular reorganization within the permanent cyst, the cilia and pharynx disappear. The micronucleus and contractile vacuole (?) persist. The macronucleus passes through a distinct metamorphosis.

15. Reorganization during permanent encystment in *P. griseus* is of the cytoplasmic or passive type. Nuclear reorganization or formation of a new micronucleus and a new macronucleus from the old micronucleus was not found to occur.

COLUMBIA, Mo.,
JULY 6, 1925.

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STUDIES IN THE LIFE HISTORY OF *EUGLENA*.*

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CONTENTS.

I. INTRODUCTION.....	321
II. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	322
III. MATERIAL AND METHODS.....	322
IV. GENERAL MORPHOLOGY.....	324
1. Diagnostic Characters.....	324
2. Gullet and Reservoir.....	325
3. Nucleus.....	326
4. Chromatophores.....	327
5. Motor Apparatus.....	327
V. REPRODUCTION.....	328
1. Nuclear Division.....	329
(a) Changes in the Endosome.....	329
(b) Formation of Chromosomes.....	330
(c) Migration of the Nucleus.....	331
(d) Metaphase.....	331
(e) Anaphase.....	332
(f) Telophase.....	332
2. Division of Gullet and Reservoir.....	333
3. Division of the Body.....	334
4. Behavior of Chromatophores During Mitosis.....	335
5. The Flagellum and History of Kinetic Elements.....	336
VI. DISCUSSION.....	337
1. The Resting Nucleus.....	338
2. The Endosome.....	339
3. Mitosis.....	347
4. The Residual Mass from the Kinetic Complex.....	350
VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.....	352
VIII. LITERATURE CITED.....	354
IX. DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.....	360

INTRODUCTION.

Attention has been called many times to the importance of research on the Flagellates because of their relatively simple structure, their apparent position at the bottom of the scale of

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living organisms, their partaking in many instances of characteristics of both plants and animals, their universal distribution and their contributions to our knowledge of general principles of biological phenomena. Many workers have engaged in such investigation and much progress has been made.

The present investigation was undertaken on the Euglenoidina because of the primitive character of the organisms composing the group, their wide distribution, their general use as types in fundamental courses in biology and the fact that the literature does not show a complete and critical account of the cycle of any one of them with attention given to all of the organoids of the cell during the successive stages in the cycle.

Solutions have been sought to four main problems through the study of:

- (1) the origin and behavior of the chromatic elements of the cell;
- (2) the nature and behavior of the endosome of the nucleus;
- (3) the origin and behavior of the locomotor apparatus during mitosis;
- (4) the location of the division center.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

The desirability of critical work on *Euglena* was originally suggested to me by Professor Robert C. Rhodes of Emory University in 1919. I desire to express my appreciation to him for much of the earlier criticism and suggestions as well as for the original plan of the work. The investigation was completed under the direction of Professor Gary N. Calkins of Columbia University. I am indebted to him for his suggestive interpretations and criticisms, both constructive and destructive, as well as for his continued encouragement and inspiration, beginning at Woods Hole in 1922, continuing at Columbia during 1924-25 and at Woods Hole in the summer of 1925. I am especially indebted to my wife, Bernice Hall Baker for her painstaking care in the preparation of the figures.

MATERIAL AND METHODS.

Several species of *Euglena* from wild cultures have been collected and identified. Attempts have been made to cultivate all

of them in order to secure material for detailed study. It has been found however, that a wide variation exists in the type of culture medium required for the different species, and that when one says a culture medium has been discovered for *Euglena* the statement means little unless the species is indicated.

A small amount of green scum known to contain *Euglena*, found on the surface of a culture of pond water, leaves and grass, was placed in a large petri dish containing one liter of tap water and one gram of malted milk. An abundance of active *Euglenæ* were produced in a few days and identified as *Euglena agilis*. From this original culture all the material for my sub-cultures used in the investigation were secured.

The most satisfactory culture medium for this species has been found to be split pea infusion made by boiling forty split peas in one liter of tap water. Sufficient citric acid is added to keep down extensive growth of bacteria. For keeping cultures in an inactive condition, quince seed jelly as recommended by Turner (1917), has been used. This medium has also been satisfactory for the study of the animals in the living state under the microscope. Inoculation of split pea infusion with material from the quince seed jelly produces abundant active forms within a few days.

Various killing fluids have been used, the best results being obtained with Schaudinn's fluid heated to 56 degrees Centigrade. Other fluids used were Flemming's strong, Bouin's picro-formol solution, chrom-acetic-osmic mixture, Zenker's fluid and osmic acid vapor.

For staining, aqueous iron-alum haematoxylin, long method, has given the most satisfactory preparations. The use of a counter stain has aided in the study of the motor apparatus. Eosin and bordeaux red (.1 per cent. solution for 24 hours before mordanting) have given the best results. All figures have been drawn from material counter-stained with eosin.

Other stains used were Delafield's haematoxylin, safranin and light green, Flemming's triple, Borrell's stain, and iron alum haematoxylin counter stained with light green or orange G.

The organisms were killed at different times during the day, the most satisfactory material being secured from eight to twelve

P.M. During that period the divisions stages are the most numerous. Twenty cc. of the material was taken at thirty minute intervals, centrifuged, killed, and either stained en masse or taken from the centrifuge tube, placed on cover glasses and stained according to that method. The first method gives good results when the material is abundant. Material killed at ten P.M. gave the greatest number of stages of mitosis. After twelve P.M. most of the divisions initiated around eight P.M. have been completed, and from twelve P.M. to six A.M. very few dividing forms can be found in the culture.

The animals in a culture appear to be active during the day but usually about five P.M. they become less active, some assuming a spherical shape then extending the body again and again as if undergoing intense metabolic activity. This difference in the cyclical phases of *Euglena agilis* as observed at different times of the day, and especially the nocturnal incidence of dividing forms may be explained perhaps by the difference in the carbon dioxide content of the medium at different times. At evening and during the night the photosynthetic processes which have gone on during the day are retarded and cease. The normal activity of the animals would then increase the relative amount of carbon dioxide present and perhaps influence the changes which are observed. Sufficient data have not yet been obtained to prove the validity of such an assumption.

GENERAL MORPHIOLOGY.

The description of *Euglena agilis* as given by Carter and quoted from Kent is as follows:

"Body somewhat flask-shaped, inflated and widest posteriorly, attenuate anteriorly; a short, blunt caudal prolongation sometimes present, but not essential; multiplying in the active condition by longitudinal and transverse fission, and in its passive or encysted one by crucial or by linear segmentation; color green, movements very active. Length 1/600 inch."

The species used in the present study conforms to this description except for the fact that it does not divide by transverse fission. In addition there are certain characters observed which seem to be diagnostic:

- (1) three to seven oblong, flattened chromatophores present, each with an uncovered pyrenoid in the center;
- (2) the periplast is more rigid than in many other forms studied so that the body does not show typical euglenoid movement when in the active condition;
- (3) flagellum about two thirds the body length;
- (4) paramylon bodies small and not very abundant.

Gullet and Reservoir.

This structure has been described and figured for many flagellates, including *Astasia ocellata* and *Euglena viridis* (Khawkins, 1886); *E. viridis* (Wager, 1899); *E. sanguinea* (Haase, 1910); *E. Ehrenbergii* (Hamburger, 1911); *Astasia levii* (Belar, 1916); *Peranema* (Hartmann and Chagas, 1910); *Eutreptia* (Steuer, 1904); *Copromonas* (Dobell, 1908); *Menodium* (Hall, 1923).

In *E. agilis* a somewhat funnel like depression is located at the anterior end and leads directly into the gullet which curves as it passes inward toward the side of the animal on which the stigma is located. The reservoir seems to be in direct connection with the gullet; it is asymmetrical in shape, the largest portion being toward the inner side of the body (Fig. 1). The vacuole system in connection with the reservoir has not been made out in *E. agilis* but in some of the larger species examined, *E. polymorpha*, *E. caudata*, *E. sanguinea* and *E. spirogyra*, a series of small pulsating vacuoles have been seen discharging their contents into the reservoir along its periphery.

The function of the gullet-reservoir system is not definitely known. Khawkins (1886) suggested that it was used for the admission of liquid food, giving as evidence the accumulation of small granules of paramylon near the gullet when the animals were fed potato starch in the dark. Kent describes observations made on *Euglena viridis* kept in carmine suspension, where he observed the passage of fine particles of the carmine into the body by way of the gullet. Wager (1899) considers it an excretory system. Rhodes and Kirby (Mss.) find that *Hetronema*, a related form, lives on a diet of *Euglena proxima*, which they have observed being taken in through a specially modified cytostome supported by a horseshoe-shaped lip and two deeply staining pharyngeal

rods. This structure is separate and distinct from the gullet-reservoir system as described in *Euglena*. They conclude that the reservoir functions primarily in the reception of the discharge of contractile vacuoles which are located on its periphery. Our own observations indicate that all these functions may be exercised by the system in *Euglena*.

The Nucleus.

The nucleus of *Euglena agilis* lies at the center of mass of the body, being located in the region of the center of the posterior flask shaped enlargement. It is spherical to oblong or ovoid in shape. Its chief characteristic is the presence of a large, deeply staining, central body or endosome, the "Binnenkorper" of Doflein and Tschenzoff. Immediately surrounding the endosome is a light hyaline area apparently devoid of chromatin material. The presence of this hyaline layer enables one to observe more readily the budding off of the motor complex, as described below, from the endosome during the early stages of mitosis.

In the resting nucleus, chromatin granules arranged apparently at the nodes of a linin network, surround the hyaline area. During the early prophase of division distinct chromosomes are formed by the growth and aggregation of these chromatin masses. When preparations stained in iron-alum haematoxylin and counter stained with eosin, are destained considerably, the endosome retains the haematoxylin so as to appear quite dark while the chromosomes appear red with the eosin. This seems to indicate that there is a great deal of linin in the network on which the chromatin masses are lodged. In most instances the masses seem to occur in pairs giving the appearance of dumb-bells. Wenrich describes somewhat the same appearance of the chromatin in *Trichomonas*. He says that in the anaphase each chromosome becomes constricted and passes into the resting nucleus as a paired structure.

A nuclear membrane can be distinguished with difficulty with the stains used, yet the shape of the nucleus and its apparent separation from the cytoplasm certainly indicates its presence as well as its persistence during mitosis.

The endosome appears homogeneous, although vacuoles or

light areas which appear as vacuoles, of varying number and distribution, can be observed at all times during the cycle. No centriole has been observed within the mass.

The Chromatophores.

The presence of chromatophores is characteristic of all but two species of *Euglena* heretofore described. They occur in varying numbers in the different species and are usually described as being of characteristic shape for each species. In *E. agilis* they appear differently at different stages in the cycle. In the resting stages they are rod shape, arranged parallel to the long axis of the body, and with a distinct pyrenoid in the center. During the stages preparatory to division as well as during the reconstruction of the daughter cells after division, they appear to be more rounded or oblong, much larger and with the pyrenoid quite indistinct or apparently absent. The number likewise is variable, since they are apparently distributed to the daughter animals in some cases before the cell divides and in other cases they divide before cell division and thus give a larger count in the body. These facts lead one to believe that this feature of the cell of *Euglena* is not a satisfactory basis for the classification of the group. A few preliminary observations on the effect of varying H-ion concentration in the culture medium indicates that the form, number and arrangement of the chromatophores is affected by changes in the culture medium. More work needs to be done on this point.

The Motor Apparatus.

This consists of a single flagellum and related structures as described below. It extends through the gullet, usually lying on the side nearest the stigma or eye-spot, and ends at one side of the lower border of the reservoir in two distinct branches, each terminated by a granule. The two branches are unequal in size and structure and perhaps also in function. The branch nearest the side of the gullet and reservoir is larger than the other and has a lens shaped enlargement at the point where the gullet widens into the reservoir, apparently underneath the stigma. This arrangement is similar to that described by Wager for *E. viridis*. The continuation of this branch appears to form the external

flagellum. The smaller branch passes from its anchoring granule through the reservoir to a point opposite or above the lens-shaped enlargement on the larger and there fuses with it. In the early stages of development after division the two branches appear to be entirely separate, though the larger grows more rapidly and extends from the cytostome before fusion with the smaller. In some few cases observed there is an indication that the two branches may remain separate not only at the outset but permanently. The granule at the base of the larger branch seems to originate first from the kinetic center and is therefore interpreted as the blepharoplast. This divides and gives rise to the granule at the base of the smaller branch which granule is here designated the basal granule.

During the late prophase and continuing for some time after division is completed there may be seen a rhizoplast extending from the blepharoplast into the cytoplasm and ending on the nuclear membrane in a heavily staining body which originates in the early prophase from the endosome. In older animals such a connection cannot be detected, indicating that direct connection with the nucleus is not necessary for the proper functioning of the motor apparatus. The early connection of the various parts seems sufficient grounds however, to designate the motor apparatus of *Euglena agilis* as a neuro-motor system as defined by Kofoid and his students. Their definition involves an integrated motor system connecting with the nucleus. (Kofoid and Christiansen, 1915a, b; Kofoid, 1916; Swezy, 1916; Boeck, 1917; Kofoid and Swezy, 1919a, b, 1920, 1922; Hall, 1923.) It is true that only during the later division stages and for a short time after binary fission there is a complete integration of nucleus and motor apparatus, even to the presence of an intra-nuclear rhizoplast (Fig. 13). The presence of these rhizoplasts is merely reminiscent of the process of development of the parts of the motor apparatus, as will be described later, since they are not permanent structures of the cell.

REPRODUCTION.

The typical method of reproduction as described for Euglenidae is by longitudinal fission, accompanied by division of the nucleus

and varying behavior of other organoids of the cell. This division occurs in the motile state in some species, in a quiescent but not encysted condition in others while in some a true cyst is formed before the organism divides. In the encysted condition the division may be binary or multiple. Some of our observations indicate that some species may divide in the free swimming condition under proper conditions but when the conditions arise which induce encystment, these conditions being either internal or external or both, the divisions may take place in the cyst. The special problems of encystment are now under investigation and will constitute the subject matter for a later paper. In this paper we are concerned with the details of the division process in *Euglena agilis*.

Nuclear Division.

Three principal changes characterize the beginning of nuclear division:

- (a) changes in the endosome and the budding off of the kinetic complex;
- (b) formation of the chromosomes;
- (c) migration of the nucleus anteriorly.

(a) *Changes in the Endosome and the Budding off of the Motor Complex.*—The endosome seems to become more vacuolated than in a typical vegetative stage, increases in size, and at the same time a small knob or bud appears on one side (Fig. 2). The bud usually appears on the side of the endosome toward the anterior portion of the animal but in several instances it has been observed first in other positions becoming turned anteriorly during the migration of the nucleus. The bud increases in size, becomes a spherical or slightly elongated, deeply staining mass and passes through the hyaline area surrounding the endosome, thence through the chromatin of the outer nucleus to the nuclear membrane. In most instances it can be seen definitely connected to the endosome by a rhizoplast (Figs. 3, 4).

On the nuclear membrane, the mass, now a distinctly spherical body, divides and the daughter bodies separate and pass gradually to opposite sides of the nucleus (Figs. 4, 5, 6). Later the portion of the nuclear membrane which lies between the bodies is drawn into a fairly definite line when viewed in optical section (Fig. 8).

As they separate the bodies again divide giving rise to the blepharoplasts of the two future cells. From each blepharoplast a new flagellum arises. When the nucleus has passed anteriorly until it comes into contact with the lower border of the reservoir, each blepharoplast divides, giving rises to a basal granule which serves as the basis for the smaller branch of the bifurcated flagellum (Fig. 6). In some cases the mass from the endosome does not follow this sequence, but both roots of the flagellum begin to grow out directly, the blepharoplast and basal granule forming later. This is much as described by Hartman and Chagas for *Spongomonas*.

(b) *Formation of Chromosomes.*—The chromatin which in the resting nucleus is observed at the nodes of a linin network in the form of granules and masses of various sizes, now collects in a number of separate rods or filaments, the chromosomes (Figs. 3, 5). The entire nucleus stains more heavily at this time than in the vegetative stages, and gives the appearance of containing more chromatin. It is perhaps true that the chromatin masses increase in bulk and undergo chemical transformation so as to give the changed appearance. The dumb-bell shape observed in the resting nucleus may still be observed, as the chromosomes become outlined. Each is seen more or less constricted at first, later becoming almost uniform in width. All the chromosomes do not form simultaneously, hence the areas where the separate chromatin masses are beginning to fuse to form the chromosomes show what might be interpreted as a spireme structure. Free ends may be distinguished however, so that one is led to believe that a continuous spireme is not formed but rather each chromosome retains a certain degree of continuity or individuality which has persisted throughout the resting stages, the chromosome as such reforming in the prophase from the chromatin network.

As the filaments or rods assume definite outlines they are seen to be more or less looped. This appearance is perhaps due to the fact that the chromatin has increased in bulk while the nuclear membrane has persisted and has not enlarged in proportion. The looped shape might easily be mistaken for a paired arrangement of separate units, especially as the chromosomes come to lie in the equatorial region and the ends of the loops become pressed close together (Fig. 7).

(c) *Migration of the Nucleus*.—While the changes described above are taking place, the body of the animal tends to become alternately rounded and extended, during which movement the nucleus passes anteriorly until it comes into contact with the lower border of the reservoir. Here the nuclear membrane and the border of the reservoir present a thickened appearance and because of the presence of the kinetic elements at opposite sides of the nucleus might easily be mistaken for a paradesmose (Fig. 8). Such an interpretation has been given to *Euglena agilis* by Hall (1923). A careful study of these stages has been made and in no case has a definite line been detected other than would be the natural consequence of the coming together of two surfaces such as the nuclear membrane and the border of the reservoir.

By the time the nucleus has reached the reservoir, the endosome has elongated, passing from spindle to rod shape, then to dumb-bell shape. In the meantime the chromosomes collect in a more or less haphazard fashion along the middle portion of the endosome. In the main they assume a radial arrangement as in Fig. 7. In this condition each chromosome shows a definite longitudinal split.

(d) *The Metaphase*.—The chromosomes, many of which show a longitudinal split during the prophase, and most of which are in the form of loops, now show a distinct separation along the plane of the longitudinal split. The separation of the split halves produces a complicated figure. Those which appear as loops open out from the apex first, gradually assuming a diamond or double V shape. Those not as loops begin to separate at one end first and gradually form elongated single V shape structures which extend the entire length of the equatorial cylinder. As the splitting proceeds the halves come to lie more nearly parallel to the elongating endosome and produce an apparent equatorial cylinder (Fig. 10). This parallel arrangement of the chromosomes with their subsequent complete separation in the midline might easily be mistaken for a transverse division.

The endosome assumes a single bend or curve in its middle region with its convex side toward the posterior part of the body of the animal. This is perhaps caused by the increase in its length beyond the width of the body of the animal, the bend

being the means of adjustment to the width of the body. On the other hand the bend may be the first indication of the plane of separation of the daughter animals and brought about by the metabolic changes in this plane (Fig. 12).

(e) *The Anaphase*.—During the anaphase the endosome continues to lengthen, accompanied by the nuclear membrane and motor complex on the outside. The ends of the endosome increase in size, perhaps at the expense of the mid-portion or centrodesmose. This region becomes much attenuated and is seen to lose its staining capacity for haematoxylin and to take the eosin in its place. The nuclear membrane can be followed distinctly between the groups of daughter chromosomes and seems to inclose a plastin like spindle. Material counter stained with light green does not show definite fibers in this spindle but indicates, rather, protoplasm that has been drawn out under the influence of the division forces.

The opposite ends of the endosome are now seen to be quite unlike in shape. One end is club shaped and rounded, as in the preceding stages, while the other is elongated anteriorly and flattened on the outer side. A projection can be detected pointing toward the granule on the periphery of the nucleus on that side (Fig. 11). In many figures a rhizoplast may be traced from the granule to this projection. This marks the path of the budding off of the original motor complex as observed in the early prophase.

The daughter chromosomes formed in the late metaphase or early anaphase now pass toward opposite ends of the nucleus and group themselves in a sort of barrel shaped cylinder around the enlarged ends of the endosome. The ends of the endosome project beyond the cylinder of chromosomes into a clear hyaline area (Fig. 11). The number of chromosomes seems to be equal at both ends and can be counted with reasonable accuracy. A number of counts from figures in end view disclose approximately 14 distinct chromatin rods.

(f) *The Telophase*.—The telophase begins after the endosome has elongated until the thin mid-portion of the centrodesmose becomes constricted. The nuclear membrane is likewise constricted and the daughter nuclei begin to round up. Here some

interesting information can be had regarding the development of the motor or kinetic complex. Each nucleus is seen to be somewhat pear shaped, its apex turned toward the border of the new reservoir and usually in contact with it (Fig. 13). At the apex of each nucleus there appears the deeply staining granule which has given rise to the blepharoplast of the new flagellum, as described above. These granules have arisen by division of the bud which came from the endosome in the early prophase. The rhizoplast which marks the path of origin of the bud from the endosome may be seen as a persistent structure in one of the nuclei. From each granule can be seen a rhizoplast passing upward to the lower border of the reservoir and ending in the blepharoplast. From the blepharoplast a connecting rhizoplast is seen passing to the basal granule of the smaller branch of the flagellum. From both the blepharoplast and basal granule the new branches of the flagellum may be seen passing upward through the reservoir into the gullet.

The endosomes of the daughter nuclei become rounded; the chromosomes take on a somewhat spiral arrangement in the peripheral region of each nucleus; condensed nodes appear in each chromosome, giving to them a beaded appearance. Each definite chromosome loses its distinct outlines and gradually becomes a part of the rapidly forming network of chromatin characteristic of the vegetative nucleus.

During these reorganization stages of the telophase, the chromosomes seem to change their staining capacity. Each appears more diffuse and broader. This appearance may be variously interpreted. In the first place it is conceivable that the change is due to a longitudinal splitting of each chromosome, the halves remaining close together without separation before passing into the resting condition. This is the interpretation which Tschenzoff gives for *Euglena viridis*. Another explanation is that the metabolic changes in the chromosomes during the reorganization period, especially the relative change from gel to sol, is sufficient to give the diffuse appearance.

Division of the Gullet and Reservoir.

As has been mentioned above, the nucleus migrates anteriorly during the early prophase and comes into contact with the lower

border of the reservoir. The mass of the kinetic complex has in the meantime divided and the daughter halves have passed away from each other on the upper margin of the nuclear membrane. The lower border of the reservoir is seen to broaden as the separation of the masses or granules continues, much as if they were the centers of the division process.

A small lobe is seen to form on each side of the widening reservoir in contact with the nucleus (Fig. 6). As the nucleus elongates the lobes increase in size and eventually become separated in the anaphase (Fig. 10). This separation continues upward along the gullet until two structures are formed from the original one, remaining connected however, at the peripheral opening of the original gullet. In the early telophase the external opening becomes oval shaped and gradually divides.

No indication has been observed of the disappearance of the old gullet-reservoir and the rebuilding of a new one as Dobell describes for *Copromonas*. Neither has one daughter animal been seen to take over the old system while the other animal builds a new one, as described by some authors.

Division of the Body.

The first indication of the longitudinal split of the body is seen in the region of the reservoir (Fig. 13). The split continues posteriorly along the median plane of the body until the two daughter animals are completely separated. The flagella appear extended from the gullets at an early stage after separation begins, and their movement perhaps aids in the eventual pulling apart of the bodies. Observations of living animals at this stage shows continued twisting and writhing of the anterior ends as separation progresses, until the two bodies are connected by a small strand of protoplasm. Then usually both animals take a position in a straight line with their anterior ends pointing in opposite directions, in which position a veritable tug of war takes place until the bodies are completely separated. Immediately after separation the bodies round up slightly, forming elongated oval shapes and remain more or less quiescent for some minutes. In this quiescent condition the final processes of reorganization seem to occur.

Observations of the pairs of daughter animals in this quiescent period immediately after separation shows interesting changes in the relationship between the nucleus and the kinetic complex. The deeply staining granule at the apex of the pear shaped nucleus becomes surrounded by a lightly staining halo, increases in size, and begins to show indications of breaking away from the nuclear membrane (Fig. 15). In the meantime the nucleus begins to rotate slightly and passes backward toward the posterior region of the body. When this posterior migration begins the rhizoplast connecting the granule with the blepharoplast, and in one of the pair of daughter animals an intranuclear rhizoplast as well, can usually be distinguished. As the animals begin to elongate after the quiescent period the granule becomes disconnected entirely from the nuclear membrane and passes with its surrounding halo into the cytoplasm. The rhizoplasts may be seen for some time after the separation but they eventually disappear and the granule becomes entirely separated from the motor organs and the nucleus (Figs. 16, 17).

The separated granule seems to have no definite position in the cytoplasm, but is found in various places. It remains as a definite structure until the later stages of the next successive division when it is observed to gradually fade out of view. In some cases it has been observed as late as the quiescent period after binary fission, so that two such bodies are then found in one cell. These cases however, are exceptional.

Behavior of Chromatophores During Mitosis.

When the division process is first initiated in the animal, the chromatophores are quite definitely delineated. A pyrenoid lies in the center of each one and takes a fairly intense stain with the haematoxylin. The body of the chromatophore stains with the eosin rather than the haematoxylin. In material counter-stained with Orange G the pyrenoids become a light orange yellow. In Borrel's stain the body of the chromatophore becomes green while the pyrenoid is blue. As the division process goes on the pyrenoids show definite changes in contour and apparently in composition. The chromatic substance becomes first aggregated around the periphery in the form of distinct masses, which later

become elongated and thread-like. In the meantime the body of the chromatophore loses its definite outline, becomes more rounded and apparently increases in size. The individuality of the pyrenoid becomes less distinct, until the later stages show the chromatophore as more less homogeneous with a slightly denser central region. This central region increases in size, elongates, becomes constricted in the center and forms two regions from which the pyrenoids seem to form in the reorganization period of the cell. This division of the chromatophores is not synchronous with the division of the nucleus and the cell, since in many cases the number of such bodies is seen to be halved in the division process, and division of each occurs later. In almost all instances however, the internal changes in the pyrenoid accompany the changes in mitosis. It is planned to make a detailed study of the behavior of the chromatophores and pyrenoids, with special reference to their relation to the mitochondria of the cell, the subject of a later paper.

Behavior of the Flagellum and History of the Kinetic Elements.

In the early prophase the external flagellum seems to become more viscous and sticky so as to adhere readily to external objects or to the oral region of the animal. Many stained specimens show the flagellum much shortened and thickened at this stage, with abundance of foreign particles adhering to it. Frequently the end adheres to the body near the cytostome and with the foreign particles attached obscures the opening into the gullet. This evidence of dissolution progresses inward, eventually involving the two branches in the reservoir, as well as the blepharoplast and basal granule on the lower border. In a few instances remains of the old flagellum have been observed in the late metaphase (Fig. 7). As a rule however, the flagellum seems to have been absorbed or sloughed off at a much earlier stage. Berliner has described a somewhat similar degeneration in *Copromonas major*. Other observers describe the disappearance of the motor apparatus during division; Wallengren (1905); Dobell (1908); Hartman and Chagas (1910). In other instances however, the flagella are said to persist for one daughter cell and new ones are developed in the other: Cutler (1919); Jameson (1914); Whitmore (1911); Awerinzew (1907).

In *Euglena agilis*, the origin of the motor apparatus can be traced to the budding off of the kinetic complex from the endosome during the early prophase. As a rule, the new flagella do not begin to grow until the nucleus has migrated anteriorly to the lower border of the reservoir, and the blepharoplasts have been produced from the kinetic mass. In a few cases what appear to be the new flagella have been observed previous to this time. The growth of both branches of each new flagellum progresses rapidly and by the time the body begins to separate into two daughter animals the main branch at least, has penetrated to the exterior.

It has been impossible to trace the origin of the lens shaped thickening on the main branch of the flagellum. It seems to arise gradually from the blepharoplast while the latter remains in connection with the kinetic mass on the nuclear membrane. When first observed during the quiescent period after division, it appears as a thick fiber extending toward the blepharoplast. Later it seems to condense at about the region of the stigma, increasing in size as the reorganization process is completed.

The significance of this thickening has not been determined. It appears to have no connection with the mitotic phenomena, but disappears and a new one is reconstructed with each division. Its association with the stigma suggests that it functions in some way as a sensitive area to perhaps both heat and light. It perhaps initiates the motor reflex in *Euglena* as described by Mast, Jennings, Bancroft and others. Steuer describes a similar thickening on both the flagella of *Eutreptia*, in approximately the same position with relation to the stigma. This may represent a mere duplication of the structure as found in *Euglena* and serve the same function for the two flagella, the one directed anteriorly and the other posteriorly.

DISCUSSION.

The importance of the flagellates as objects of study has long been recognized by students of the Protozoa. Bütschli (1878), Klebs (1883), Fisch (1883), and many other earlier workers did much to stimulate such research. The Euglenoid nucleus has proved to be a very favorable object for study of nuclear phe-

nomena during mitosis and yet not until comparatively recent time were the nuclear phenomena here critically described and figured. Much controversy has arisen because of superficial observation as regards both the structure of the resting nucleus and the process of nuclear division. Tschenzoff (1916), presented one of the most complete and critical studies of *Euglena viridis* recorded and attempted to interpret the nuclear phenomena. Belar likewise, gave a good account of the process in *Astasia*, although his descriptions and figures seem to be somewhat incomplete. Other workers, Rhodes and Kirby (MSS.) on *Heteronema*, Hall (1923) on *Menoidium* have given more detailed accounts. Much further study must be made before many of the disputed points can be settled.

The Resting Nucleus.

The nuclei of flagellates present varied appearances. Prowazek (1903), attempted to classify the various types and Dobell (1908) grouped these types under the following four classes, adding a fifth class himself:

- (1) Simple nuclei, with an evenly distributed chromatic network, and no internal structures (karyosomes, division centers, etc.), e.g., *Herpetomonas*.
- (2) Vesicular nuclei, with direct division; with a central chromatin mass surrounded by a clear zone, across which a more or less distinct network extends outward to the nuclear membrane. Such a nucleus may be seen in some species of *Bodo*, and is well represented by *Copromonas*.
- (3) Centronuclei containing a "nucleolo-centrosome" (Keuten, 1895) and separate chromatin masses. This type of nucleus is characteristic of *Euglena* and its allies. (The centronucleus, as defined by Boveri, is a nucleus which contains a cyto-center, either in consolidated or diffuse form. In the case of *Euglena*, etc., the cyto-center is the nucleolo-centrosome, i.e., is of the consolidated type.)
- (4) Vesicular nuclei, with karyokinetic division, e.g., *Polytoma*, *Chlamydomonas*, etc.
- (5) Nuclei in which the achromatic division center lies freely in the cell, whilst the chromatin is diffuse in the form of chromidia.

According to this system of classification, the nucleus of *Euglena agilis* is of type three, yet the fact of the apparent karyokinetic division would indicate a modification of the type.

Various descriptions have been given of the Euglenoid nucleus: Bütschli (1889), Steuer (1904), Haase (1910), Hamburger (1911), Tschenzoff (1916), Hall (1923), considered it similar to the nuclei of other plant and animal cells so far as the chromatin material was concerned. Klebs (1883), Dangeard (1902), Dehorne following Dangeard (1920), record a spireme structure in the resting nucleus. It is quite probable that the latter descriptions are of nuclei in the early prophase stages of division rather than in the resting condition.

Keuten (1895), described well formed chromosomes in the resting nucleus of *Euglena viridis*, but here again it seems probable that prophase stages were observed.

The description as given by Tschenzoff (1916), seems to be typical for many of the Euglenoid nuclei, that of *Euglena agilis* included. He described a central "Binnenkorper" around which is found "chromatische substanz in Form von feinsten Brockchen und Fadchen. Manchmal tritt mehr brockliche Beschaffenheit des Chromatin, manchmals feinfadige Zutage. Manchmal die Chromatin konnen auf einer Netwerk aufgereiht zu sein, . . . Ein geschlossenes Webenwerk konnte ich nicht feststellen, wenn auch das Vorhandsein eines solches zu vermuten ist."

This description agrees with that of Butschli (1883-1889) for nuclei of Euglenoidina in general and with the descriptions by many other observers. It might well be added that in several species of *Euglena* examined the endosome is fragmented, the fragments often being indistinguishable from the granules of chromatin when stained with haematoxylin.

On the whole, there seems to be no single distinct type of nucleus characteristic of the Euglenidae. We must face the fact therefore, that much more detailed work needs to be done on the group before an accurate classification of the nuclei can be made.

The Endosome.

This structure has led to much discussion among various observers as to both structure and function. It was first defined

by Minchin as being the chromatin mass at or near the center of a "vesicular" nucleus, the precise nature of which not being determined in the definition. There may or may not occur in such a nucleus other granules of chromatin. If they do occur they are always smaller than the central mass or endosome. Some observers describe the structure as a body of homogeneous character comparable to the nucleoli of other plant and animal cells. Others say it consists of a matrix of plastin impregnated with chromatin, arranged more or less in granules, and plays a part in the formation of chromosomes (Berliner, 1909; Haase, 1910; Schüssler, 1917; Hartmann, 1919, 1921). Still others, Keuten (1895) compare it with the centrosome and central spindle of diatoms and speak of it as the "nucleolo-centrosome." Schaudinn (1896) thought he had demonstrated this to be the nature of the endosome in *Oxyrrhis* when by placing the animal in dilute sea-water the endosome migrated from the nucleus and functioned as an extranuclear centrosome. Hall (1924), after critical study of *Oxyrrhis*, thinks Schaudinn's supposed endosome was a small food mass. Steuer (1904) describes a "nucleolo-centrosoma" in the center of the nucleus of *Eutreptia*. In the work of Tschenzoff and in the general work of Doflein the body is spoken of as the "Binnenkörper," which term is quite non-committal both as to structure and function.

The question of the presence of a centriole in the endosome has also been the subject of much discussion. Schüssler (1917) believes that both nuclear components are located in the endosome of *Scytonomas*, and that from this type as a starting point all degrees of differentiation of the kinetic and generative components may be found. Belar (1916) figures definite centrioles in the endosome of *Astasia*, tracing them through their entire cycle. In *Rhynchomonas*, he describes a centriole which passes from the karyosome to the nuclear membrane where it divides. In the same paper (1916) he concludes that "the basal body of Flagellates is doubtless a centriole."

A good summary of the relation between the kinetic and generative components of the nucleus, bearing upon the problem of the endosome, is to be found in the work of Hartmann (1918) and of Jollos (1917):

"Denn wir haben ja eingehend gesehen, wie in dem Telophasen bei Chlorogonium elongatum zunächst aus dem gesamten Kernmaterial, den Chromosomen (der generative Komponente) wie Centriole (der Teilungskomponente) ein einheitlicher Binnenkörper, also ein primäres, echtes Caryosome gebildet wird. Erst sekundär trat das Chromosomenmaterial (sowie offenbar das Centriol) in den aussenkern über und es bleib nur ein einfacher Binnenkörper oder Nucleolus zurück, der nun weder die generative noch die Teilungskomponente enthält." Page 28, Hartmann.

"Der Binnenkörper kann vielmehr, je nachdem bei den verschiedenen Protisten oder in verschiedenen Entwicklungsstadien ein und derselben Form, entweder beide Komponenten enthalten, oder die eine oder die andere, oder schliesslich überhaupt keine. Das Wesenlichte unserer Anschauung, mit den alle neuren Tatschen übereinstimmen, ist 'die Lehre, das bei der Teilung allen Protisten, der einfachsten wie der hochstenwickelten zwei Komponenten hervortreten, die lokomotorische und die idiogenerative, und dass die mannigfaltige Konstitution der Protistenkerne durch die wechselnde Anordnung und Ausbildung dieser beiden Komponenten bedingt wird.' Jollos, 1917." Hartmann, page 28.

In *Euglena agilis* certain phases of this intranuclear body seem to shed some light on the endosome problem. One of the first evidences of approaching mitosis is the budding off from the endosome of a deeply staining granule of unmistakable character (Figs. 2, 3). This granule passes to the nuclear membrane where it divides, the division products taking their place at opposite sides of the nucleus, although not at the exact poles. Throughout the division process a rhizoplast may be seen connecting the original granule with the endosome. From each of the daughter granules are budded off the blepharoplast and basal body for the motor apparatus. The entire system remains integrated as a distinct unit until the division is completed and the animal goes into the quiescent period.

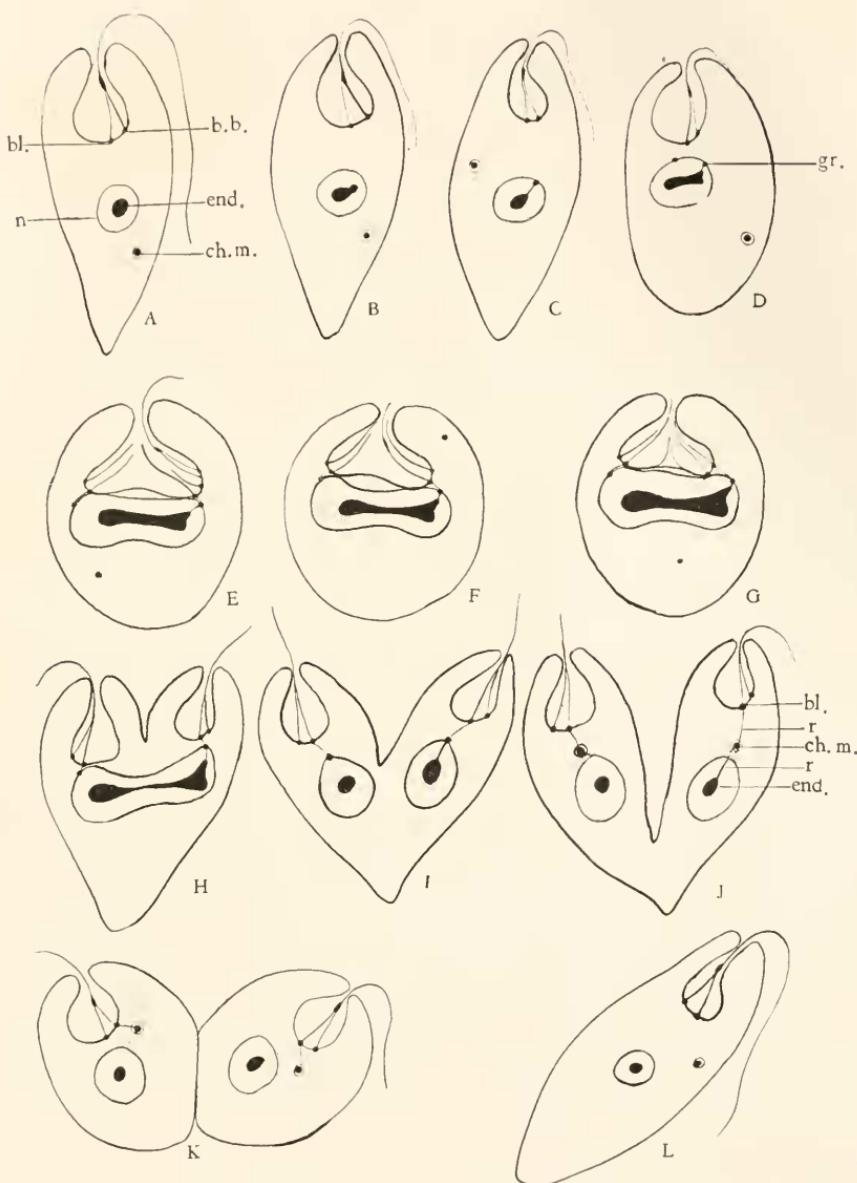
The portion of the endosome remaining in the nucleus, lengthens out during division, becoming first rod-shape, then spindle-shape and finally dumb-bell shape, but through all the changes in shape the opposite ends are seen to be different. One

is rounded or knob-like while the other is blunt and possesses an elongation on the anterior side, from which the intra-nuclear rhizoplast may be traced to the kinetic complex. As division progresses and the centrodesmose elongates, the opposite ends of the endosome seem to be drawn upward toward the two kinetic centers, or rather the two masses from which the motor elements have been developed. The mass of the endosome appears as a passive frame work or support serving as a central spindle for the division process, and not as a kinetic center for the division.

Whitmore (1911) describes in *Prowazekia asiatica* a process quite similar to that observed in *Euglena agilis*. According to him a body is pinched off from the karyosome which has loosened up during the early stages of division. From this body arise the centrioles while the remainder of the karyosome together with the outer chromatin of the nucleus forms the spindle. He concludes that the body pinched off is the locomotor-generative component, the karyosome residue constituting the idio-chromatin.

In diphasic amebae which combine amoeboid and flagellated phases in one life cycle, e.g., *Nægleria gruberi* (Wilson, 1915), a granule in the endosome gives rise to the blepharoplast by division. One daughter-granule destined to become the blepharoplast, migrates to the nuclear membrane, remaining connected with the granule in the endosome by an intra-nuclear rhizoplast. The flagellum grows out from the blepharoplast, hence the motor apparatus in these forms arises directly or indirectly as an outgrowth from the endosome. The process in *Euglena agilis* is not quite as simple as this since the mass budded from the endosome contains blepharoplasts, basal bodies, and a chromatoid residue, which remains in close connection with the motor apparatus until the daughter animals become fully reorganized after division.

McCulloch (1917) describes the origin of a chromatoid mass from the endosome in *Crithidia euryophthalmi*. This mass later is seen connected with the blepharoplast and the endosome by means of rhizoplasts. She identifies the structure as the para-basal body. A somewhat similar body is figured in *Cryptobia* by Swezy, who likewise speaks of it as the parabasal body. The resemblance between these figures and certain stages in the cycle of *Euglena agilis* is readily seen (Text-figure A).



TEXT-FIGURE A. Diagrams showing the origin and development of the motor apparatus in *Euglena agilis*. A, vegetative stage; B-D, stages in the prophase; E, metaphase; F-H, anaphase; I-J, telophase; K, cells in quiescent period; L, daughter animal reorganized. (bl.) Blepharoplast; b. b. basal body; end., endosome; ch. m., chromatoid mass left as residue after formation of kinetic elements; n, nucleus; gr., granule which arises from the endosome, divides and gives rise to the kinetic elements; r, rhizoplast.

The so-called "kineto-nucleus" of trypanosomes appears in approximately the same relation to the rest of the cell as does the deeply staining chromatoid mass of the kinetic complex in *Euglena agilis*. When one remembers the importance given to the "kineto-nucleus" and the emphasis placed upon homologous structures in other forms, in the development of the group *Binucleata*, the interest attached to the comparable body in *Euglena agilis* is increased. It is generally agreed by Protozoologists the "kineto-nucleus" is neither a nucleus nor an active kinetic center and the name should therefore be replaced by one of greater significance. Among the terms suggested is "parabasal body," first used by Janicki but redefined and used more extensively by Kofoid.

Examination of the descriptions given of parabasal bodies and their behavior by Janicki and others, shows striking similarity to that of the chromatoid mass of the kinetic complex in *E. agilis*. The parabasal body is closely connected with the kinetic elements of the cell, and according to Kofoid serves as a reservoir of substances which are used by the organism in its kinetic activities. During mitosis the body behaves variously in different species. In *Devescovina striata*, for example, it divides and the two daughter parabasals are shown in constant relationship to the poles of the extra-nuclear, rod-like, division spindle, where centrioles can often be determined. In other cases, e.g., *Lophomonas blattarum*, the parabasal body degenerates with approaching mitosis and a new one is formed for each of the daughter animals produced. In *Euglena agilis*, the granule which migrates from the endosome, divides, the daughter halves separate and occupy positions at the approximate poles of the division figure. From each granule is freed a blepharoplast-basal body complex which becomes the base of the bifurcated flagellum. A chromatoid residue remains on the nuclear membrane, connected by a rhizoplast to the blepharoplast and in one animal to the endosome. The residue retains this intimate connection with the motor apparatus until the animals are completely reorganized, at which time it breaks away from the nuclear membrane, the rhizoplasts disappear and it passes into the cytoplasm. As the next mitosis approaches, it begins to degenerate as a rule, and finally disappears entirely.

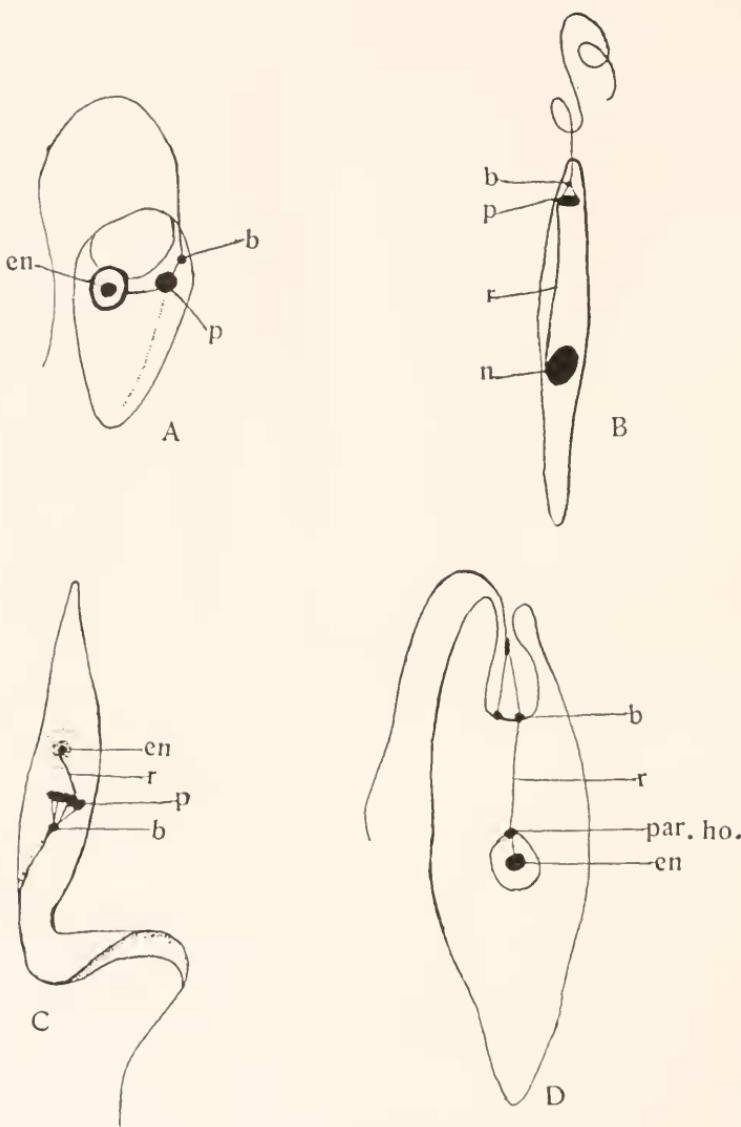
Such a type of organization and behavior of related and kinetic elements is what one might expect in so primitive an organism as *Euglena*. We have many valid reasons for believing that within this group are to be found the progenitors of the other groups of Protozoa. As evolution progressed toward the rhizopod type, exflagellation might easily be conceived as a process of inhibition of the development of the kinetic complex from the endosome of the nucleus. When conditions in the cycle of an amoeba, e.g., *Nagleria gruberi*, are appropriate, flagellation is stimulated and we see the complex arising from the endosome as in *Euglena*.

In those flagellates which have a more diverse series of life habits and hence greater complexity of structure, such as Trypanosomes, *Devescovina*, *Crithidia*, *Lophomonas*, *Calonympha*, etc., we find a type of organization easily derived from some stage shown in the development of *Euglena*. In these parasitic flagellates which show the presence of a permanent parabasal body in connection with the motor apparatus, we can easily conceive that the chromatoid residue which remains in connection with the motor apparatus in *Euglena agilis*, only during the late division stages and the reorganization period, becomes a permanent organelle of the cell. Such a change might be brought about through the greater demands made upon the motor apparatus when the organisms become adapted to a dense medium. In *E. agilis* the residue serves as a temporary reserve only, for the kinetic elements of the cell and becomes disconnected from them as soon as the new flagellum begins to function actively. A permanent reservoir of substances to be used by the organisms in its kinetic activities is required by the parasitic flagellates. This need is met by the parabasal body.

We may draw the following conclusions from the preceding discussion:

(1) The endosome in *Euglena agilis* is the ultimate source of all the kinetic elements of the cell, but does not contribute to the formation of the chromosomes.

(2) An endobasal body is located in the endosome and gives rise by division to a chromatoid mass, the kinetic complex. This migrates to the periphery of the nucleus where it divides, the daughter halves passing to the approximate poles of the division



TEXT-FIGURE B. Diagrams showing the suggested homology between the kinetic elements of *Euglena agilis* and other flagellates. A, *Cryptobia* sp.; B, *Herpetomonas musca-domesticae*; C, *Trypanosoma cruzi*; D, *Euglena agilis*. (b) Blepharoplast; (r) rhizoplast; (p) parabasal body; (en) endosome; (n) nucleus; (par. ho.) parabasal homologue. (A and B from Calkins after Swezy; C from Calkins after McCulloch.)

figure. In this position the bodies seem to be homologous to the centro-blepharoplasts of *Trichomonas* and other forms as described by Kofoid.

(3) The chromatoid residue left on the nuclear membrane after the blepharoplast-basal body complex is freed, as described above, is homologous to the parabasal body of many parasitic flagellates as well as to the so-called "kinetonucleus" of *Trypanosomes*. This homology is indicated by the position of the residue with relation to the poles of the division figure and its connections with the endosome and blepharoplast.

Examination of Text-Fig. *B* indicates the homologies suggested.

Mitosis.

Many cases of "amitosis" were described by the earlier observers of division stages in the Protozoa. More refined methods of technique have enabled later workers to determine, however, that amitosis is of rare occurrence in this group as it is in Metazoa. Nagler (1909) designated what had been previously called "amitosis" in amoeba and many other Protozoa, as "Promitosis," in order to differentiate this type from mitosis as found in Metazoa and Metaphyta. He says: "Für die sogenannte Amitose der Protozoen führt man daher am besten eine neue Bezeichnung ein und definiert sie als eine Kernteilung, die weder ausgesprochene Mitose, noch Amitose ist und sich charakterisiert durch die Teilung eines Nucleolocentrosoms, des Caryosoms. Ich schlage deshalb für diese Teilungsform den Namen Promitose vor."

Chatton (1910) distinguished three types of mitosis, characterized as follows:

- (1) Promitosis—Division center within the karyosome, nuclear membrane persistent, chromosomes formed from the peripheral chromatin.
- (2) Mesomitosis—Division center outside the karyosome, nuclear membrane persistent, chromosomes from the karyosome.
- (3) Metamitosis—Division center outside the nucleus, nuclear membrane disappears, chromosomes from the nuclear chromatin.

This system is based on a study of *Amœba* and hence could scarcely be expected to apply to other forms equally as well. *Euglena agilis* seems at first sight to fit into type one or promitosis, and yet the division center cannot be definitely located within the endosome.

Alexeieff (1913) elaborates a system of classification which goes into great detail, but which even so, does not cover all cases. According to his system, *Euglena agilis* seems to show haplo-mitosis, since no centriole can be positively identified and yet distinct polar masses are formed.

Prophase.—The formation of chromosomes in *Euglena agilis* does not occur as was described by Tschenzoff for *E. viridis*. In the resting stage the chromatin is arranged in masses, frequently dumb-bell shaped, along an achromatic network. In the early prophase these separate masses appear to enlarge and increase in staining capacity, at the same time fusing along the linin threads of the network to form chromosomes. Tschenzoff describes the formation of a number of granules around the periphery of the nucleus which eventually become arranged in rows or files. These become the chromosomes. It is an easy matter to make out granules around the periphery of the nucleus in *E. agilis* at this stage, but upon close examination they prove to be optical cross sections of chromosomes. Also, the granules of the motor complex may be found in a similar position, staining with the same intensity as does the endosome.

I have not been able to make out the beaded structure of the chromosomes, such as have been figured by some investigators. It is true that each chromosome appears to consist of two masses in its earlier stages of formation and later these masses seem to run together to form the smooth chromosome. It is difficult to interpret this apparent double structure of the chromosomes. It is possible that it represents a doubling or splitting at some previous stage in the cycle. Wenrich describes such an appearance of chromosomes in *Trichomonas* and traces it back to a constriction in the previous anaphase. He does not connect this constriction with the split chromosomes of the prophase however, nor does he attach any particular importance to the phenomenon.

Kofoid describes a pseudo-reduction of chromosomes in

Trichonympha, brought about by a pairing of single chromosomes in the prophase. He suggests the possibility of a pregametic doubling of chromosomes in Protozoa such as occurs in the Metazoa, but does not consider this to be the most plausible explanation of the observed facts.

Stevens describes the association of chromosomes in pairs during the vegetative stages of *Boveria subcylindrica*. The significance of this apparent reduction in vegetative mitosis is problematical and the subject requires much more work before a correct interpretation and correlation can be made. In *Uroleptus mobilis* Calkins finds eight chromosomes which unite in four pairs during the first maturation division, the pairs splitting at the second maturation division so that the daughter nuclei have four single chromosomes. He concludes that this is undoubtedly synapsis and reduction.

Tschenzoff describes a telophasic split in *Euglena viridis*, which doubles the number of chromosomes entering the resting vegetative stage. Such a precocious split has not been observed in *Euglena agilis*, although the double appearance of the chromatin masses may be indicative of such a process. On the other hand, a definite longitudinal split has been observed in the prophase.

It is not known what changes take place in the nucleus during the encystment in *Euglena*, but it is entirely possible that some phenomena will be found here to throw light on the apparently paired arrangement of the chromatin masses.

Metaphase.—Tschenzoff describes in the metaphase, a separation of daughter chromosomes formed by a splitting in the telophase of the preceding generation. He states that the elements may be seen paired on the spindle at this stage and then separating without further split. Structures may be observed in *Euglena agilis* which might easily be interpreted in this manner but which show on critical examination an entirely different situation. The network of chromatin in the resting nucleus becomes enlarged at the nodes or at the points where the chromatin masses are fusing to form chromosomes. This increase in bulk of chromatin does not seem to be compensated for by a corresponding increase in size of the nucleus. Since the nuclear membrane remains intact during the entire process of division the

chromosomes, as soon as formed, become quite tortuous in the limited space. The enlarging endosome with the budding off of the kinetic complex tends to force the chromosomes toward the periphery of the nucleus thus forming many twists and loops. When these chromosomes come to lie radially around the elongated endosome, preceding the longitudinal splitting, they appear as loops whose arms are rather closely pressed together. Thus at one focus one can distinguish a number of pairs of distinct chromosomes, but as the focus is changed the ends may be found to be connected into the loop. The longitudinal split begins at the end next to the endosome and proceeds toward the periphery. Thus, if an apex is inward, as is frequently the case, a double V-shaped figure is produced as the split halves separate. An X shape or a figure 8 shape is produced if the free ends are turned inward. In either case, the pulling apart of the split halves forms the equatorial plate figure, or as it might be better expressed, the "equatorial cylinder."

Anaphase.—From the equatorial cylinder stage the ends of the split chromosomes pull apart and an appearance of a transverse splitting of chromosomes is the result. This perhaps accounts for some of the earlier descriptions and widely quoted figures which show a transvers splitting of chromosomes in *Euglena*.

In the late anaphase, the chromosomes begin to show evidence of a return to the typical vegetative condition. Dehorne (1920) describes them as going back into the continuous spireme stage of the resting nucleus. It is true that the exact identity of the chromosomes tends to be lost as they begin to condense into the granular condition, but little evidence is found that a continuous spireme is constructed.

Telophase.—Careful search was made for a precocious splitting at this stage in order to determine whether the description as given by Tschenzoff for *Euglena viridis* held also for *Euglena agilis*. Aside from the apparently diffuse nature of the chromosomes and their change in intensity of staining reaction, no definite evidence of a split was observed.

The Residual Mass from the Kinetic Complex.

Blochmann (1894) found in *Euglena velata* a body in the cytoplasm, often lying near the nucleus but sometimes far from it.

He first regarded it as a centrosome but because of its appearance in different parts of the cell, and because it appeared to persist after division was completed, he did not commit himself to this interpretation.

Keuten (1895) likewise found bodies lying near the nucleus during the division of *Euglena viridis*, which persisted after division and could be found surrounded by a halo in various parts of the cell in the vegetative condition. He did not think these were centrosomes nor in any way related to the division phenomena.

Haase (1910), in *Euglena sanguinea*, traces the flagellum from the lower border of the reservoir into the cytoplasm where she finds and figures both branches ending in a basal body (diplosome?).

Tschenzoff (1916) describes granules in the cytoplasm of *Euglena viridis* but explains them as artifacts resulting from his methods of killing.

One is led to believe from the above descriptions that the granule observed in the different species mentioned is the same as that traced through its entire development in *Euglena agilis*. It has been seen to arise from the endosome, pass to the periphery of the nucleus, divide into two equal daughter granules which pass to opposite of the nucleus. In this position the granules seem to be homologous to the centro-blepharoplasts as described by Kofoed. In the early prophase stages each granule produces a blepharoplast which passes to the border of the reservoir and later gives rise to the main branch of the flagellum. The chromatoid residue left on the nuclear membrane increases in size during the telophase, and during the quiescent period when the nucleus migrates posteriorly to its original position in the cell, breaks away from the nuclear membrane, becomes surrounded by a clear hyaline vesicle and becomes a cytoplasmic structure. During the vegetative stages no change can be observed in this granule, but as the stages of the next successive mitosis proceed it is seen to lose its staining capacity and as a rule disappears before the late anaphase. In some cases it has been seen to persist throughout the division and to be distributed to one of the daughter animals. In this case a single cell would be seen to contain two such

granules during the early stages after division. This would account for the fact that Blochmann records three instances where he found two granules in the body of an animal. In one case he records three as being present.

The question arises as to the significance of this bit of nuclear material sent into the cytoplasm at each division period. It seems clearly demonstrated that it acts as the vehicle for the transfer of the kinetic elements from the endosome to the cytoplasm. After the kinetic elements are freed it remains in close connection with both the endosome and the blepharoplast for sometime after division, in fact until the daughter cells are fully reorganized. In this position we may conclude that it is homologous, both in structure and function, to the parabasal body of parasitic flagellates. It seems to serve as a reserve of kinetic energy until the newly developed motor apparatus is fully formed and functioning normally. With this function completed, does it play any further rôle in the physiology of the cell? Only conjecture can be made at present. It seems reasonable to suppose however, that there is sufficient chromatin material in the mass to bring about some sort of reorganization in the cytoplasm of the body after each division. Thus the protoplasm might be kept in a proper state of physiological differentiation so as to make process of conjugation, autogamy or endomixis unnecessary. The disappearance of the mass in the early stages of each division is suggestive that in *Euglena* we find a mechanism which functions as a sort of regulator of the division cycle. It is possible that changes in this mass of chromatin, this kinetic reserve, may be the stimulus which incites the division of the cell with such striking regularity. Although it does not function as a division center, yet it sets up a series of concatenated events which result in the final production of two fully vigorous individuals from the single parent cell.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.

1. Mitosis in *Euglena agilis* is accomplished in a manner quite similar to that described for higher plants and animals. Definite chromosomes are formed, divide longitudinally and are distributed equally to the daughter cells. The chromosomes are

formed from the chromatin of the outer nucleus and not from the endosome.

2. Division of the nucleus is preceded by its migration anteriorly in the body until it comes into close contact with the lower border of the reservoir.

3. A chromatoid mass, the kinetic complex, originates from the endosome during the prophase, migrates to the periphery of the nucleus where it divides. The division products pass to opposite sides of the anterior border of the nucleus, in which position they suggest homology with the centroblepharoplasts of *Trichomonas*. No paradesmose has been detected between them however.

4. From the kinetic complex a blepharoplast is freed and produces the main branch of a new flagellum. Later, a basal body arises from each blepharoplast, and from it is produced the secondary branch or anchoring root of a flagellum.

5. The residue from the kinetic complex, after the formation of the blepharoplast, remains on the nuclear membrane until division of the animal is completed and the daughter cells have reorganized. A rhizoplast passes from it to the blepharoplast and in one of the daughter animals an intra-nuclear rhizoplast is seen making connection with the endosome. After reorganization of the daughter animals is completed, the residual mass is cast out into the cytoplasm where it remains during the vegetative stages of the organism as a deeply staining granule surrounded by a lightly staining halo. It usually disappears during the early phases of the next successive mitosis. Its behavior and relationship to the motor apparatus suggests a homology with the parabasal body of parasitic flagellates.

6. The division process is a function of the cell as a whole, being initiated not by the division of a specific body that might be called a centrosome, but rather by simultaneous changes in all parts of the cell. The centroblepharoplast homologue, together with an endobasal body in the endosome seem to constitute the principal dynamic centers. The mass of the endosome seems to constitute a sort of passive framework or spindle for the division process.

7. The entire motor apparatus of the parent animal, consisting of flagellum, basal body and blepharoplast disappears during division and a new one is built up in each daughter animal.

8. The mitotic and related phenomena in *Euglena agilis* give additional evidence of the primitive character of the Phyto-mastigoda. The development of the motor organoids indicate relationship with diphasic amoeba on the one hand and with the complex parasitic flagellates on the other.

9. Changes in the chromatophores during the division and vegetative periods, as well as their changes when the *Euglenæ* are subjected to different cultural conditions indicate that these structures are not satisfactory criteria upon which to base the classification of the group.

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EXPLANATION OF FIGURES.

PLATE I.

All sketches were made with camera lucida with Leitz compens ocular (20) and Leitz apo. obj. 1.5. They have been reduced one half.

FIG. 1. *Euglena agilis* in vegetative condition showing nucleus, endosome, chromatophores with pyrenoids, blepharoplast, basal body, flagellar enlargement, reservoir, gullet or cytopharynx, and kinetic residue. The stigma or eyespot does not show with the stains used. The chromatin is arranged in a net work.

FIG. 2. Early prophase drawn in optical section showing first stages in formation of chromosomes and early budding of the kinetic complex from the endosome.

FIG. 3. The chromosomes appear as elongated rods or loops and give the appearance of a spireme. The bud from the endosome is definitely connected by a rhizoplast.

FIG. 4. The granule budded from the endosome has divided, the daughter halves passing along the periphery of the nucleus. One is connected by rhizoplast to the endosome.

FIG. 5. Another view of the daughter granules separating on the nuclear membrane. The animal is beginning to round up and the nucleus is approaching lower border of the reservoir.

FIG. 6. The endosome has elongated, each daughter half of the kinetic complex has given rise to a blepharoplast and this in turn to a basal body. From both the blepharoplast and basal body a flagellar element has grown out. The remainder of the old flagellum is seen in the right side of the figure. The pyrenoids of the chromatophores are undergoing change in organization. The chromosomes are arranged around the elongated endosome.

FIG. 7. An optical section of a late prophase or metaphase with chromosomes arranged somewhat radially around the endosome. Each chromosome shows a longitudinal split and the looped nature of each gives the appearance of a pairing.

Figs. 8-10. Stages in the anaphase, showing separation of the daughter chromosomes and the formation of an equatorial cylinder. The rhizoplast connecting the blepharoplast to the residue of the kinetic complex is visible in figure eight.

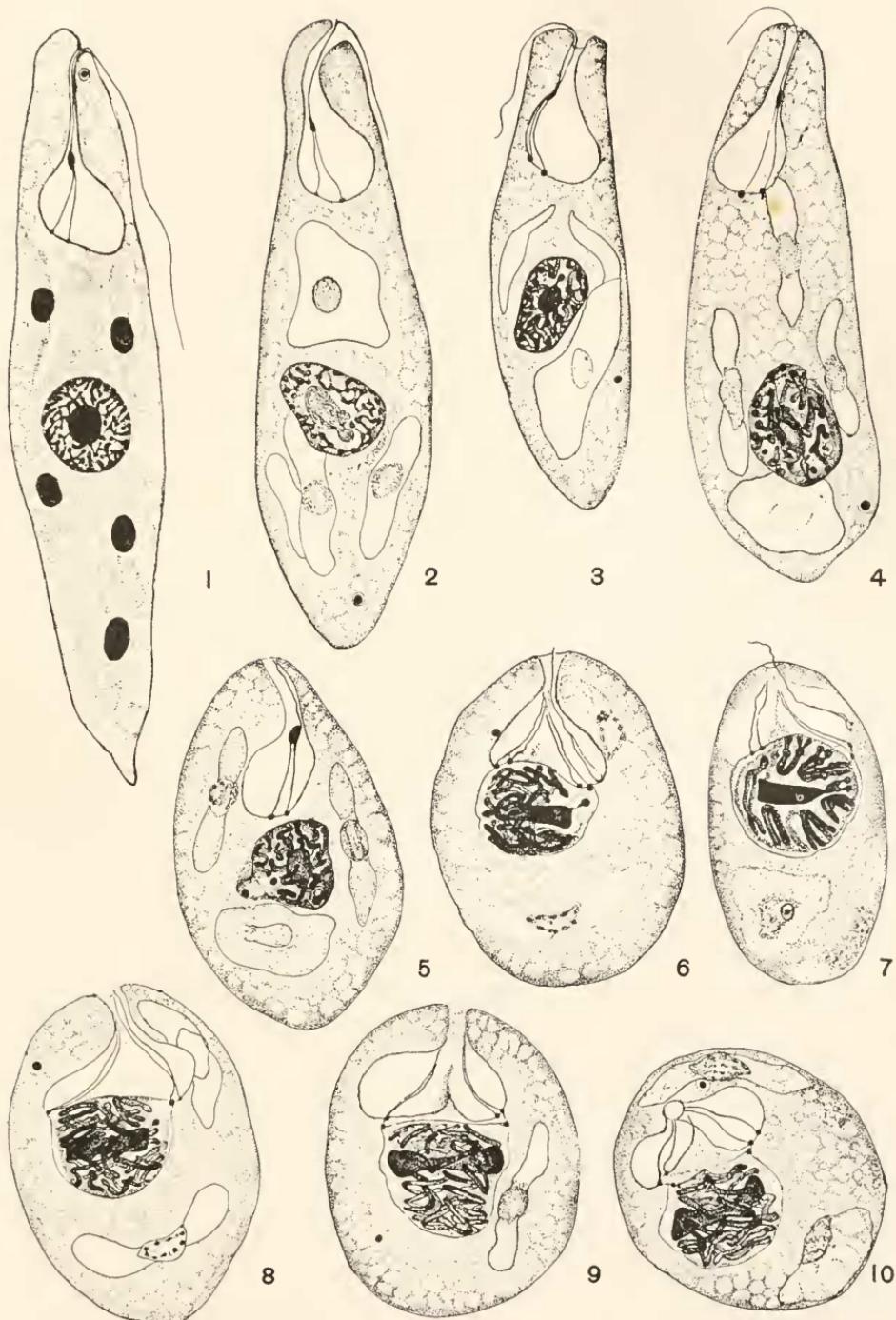


PLATE II.

FIGS. 11-12. Late anaphases showing chromosomes grouped around ends of elongated endosome. In Fig. 11 the integrated kinetic elements show on both sides of the nucleus while they are visible on one side only in Fig. 12. The components of the other side are at a much lower level.

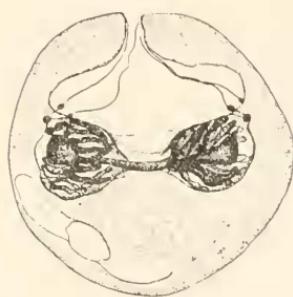
FIGS. 13-14. Telophase stages showing enlargement of residue from kinetic complex and beginning of formation of halo around it.

FIG. 15. Division completed and the daughter organisms in quiescent period. The nucleus is receding from the reservoir.

FIG. 16. The chromosomes have begun to go back into vegetative condition. The kinetic residue is cast into cytoplasm.

FIG. 17. Further stage in reorganization.

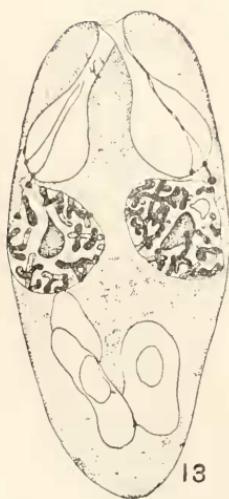
FIG. 18. Organism reorganized.



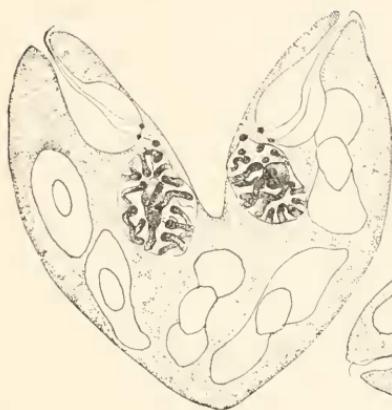
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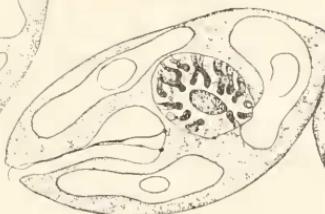
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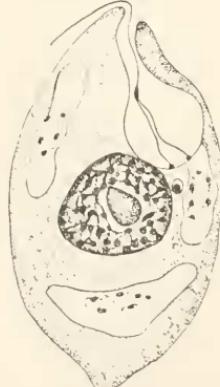
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16



17



18

HYDROGEN ION CONCENTRATION IN THE BLOOD OF CERTAIN INSECTS (ORTHOPTERA).

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Inasmuch as most accurate quantitative results on the hydrogen ion concentration of blood and body fluids have been largely confined to higher animals it seems highly desirable to extend these observations to lower forms, and especially insects. Since only small amounts of fluids are usually available from single insects, an accurate micro-electrometric method is necessary for the successful carrying out of such investigations. A simple micro hydrogen electrode and vessel, particularly designed for this purpose, have been described by the author (Bodine and Fink, 1). The present paper contains data obtained by the use of this method for the blood of different species of grasshoppers.

With the exception of two papers (Bishop, 2; Brecher, 3), all previous work on insect blood seems to have been carried out by means of colorimetric methods (Jameson and Atkins, 4; Crozier, 5; Bodine, 6; Glaser, 7). Since the blood of most insects is colored it seems highly desirable that other methods than micro-colorimetric ones be used and especially since the indicator most used in these methods is brom-thymol-blue. The blue-green to yellow-green color of insect blood seems to introduce an undesirable factor in micro-colorimetric methods using this indicator. Results obtained by the use of colorimetric methods by different authors are somewhat variable and it therefore seemed highly desirable to check them by means of an electrometric method.

In the present investigation different species of grasshoppers, reared under controlled food, temperature and other laboratory conditions, have been used as well as other animals taken from their normal out-of-door environments. Individual studies have been made on the blood of certain species from the day of hatching until death or in other words during their entire life cycle. Blood was taken from the grasshoppers in a variety of ways,—by

cutting off the tip of the feet, puncturing the animal by means of needles, insertion of electrode vessel directly into the body cavity, etc. No marked differences in pH of the blood obtained by these different methods was noted. The method found most satis-

TABLE I.

SPECIES: *Chortophaga viridifasciata*.

Age, Color, Sex.	pH of Blood.
nymph—brown—♂.....	6.83
nymph—green—♀.....	6.83
nymph—brown—♀.....	6.84
nymph—brown—♀.....	6.86
adult—♂.....	6.62
adult—♂.....	6.43
adult—♂.....	6.67
adult—♂.....	7.05
adult—♂.....	6.85
adult—♀.....	6.65
adult—♀.....	6.94
adult—♀.....	6.51
adult—♀.....	6.95
adult—♀.....	6.73
adult—♀.....	6.93
Average.....	6.79
Range.....	6.43-7.05

Explanation of Table I.

Data taken at random from many individuals showing pH of blood of *Chortophaga viridifasciata*. Animals all taken from out-of-doors. Some bloods tested at once. Other animals kept in laboratory and fed lettuce over different periods. Samples of blood tested regularly. Average given for all individuals tested.

factory and least harmful to the grasshopper, however, was a small needle puncture into the mid-lateral abdominal wall. Only a very small amount of blood is thus lost by the insect and the wound is quickly sealed. Sufficient blood (approximately 0.01 cc.), however, is obtained in this way for electrometric determinations of pH values. The grasshopper was usually punctured and the blood immediately drawn up into the electrode vessel with practically no exposure to air. As a matter of fact, identical results were obtained with blood taken from the interior of the animal by the insertion of the electrode vessel directly into the animal as by the method of puncturing and then immediately

TABLE 2.

SPECIES: *Melanoplus femur rubrum*.

Age, Sex.	pH of Blood.
Nymph.....	7.00
Nymph.....	6.23
Nymph.....	6.95
Nymph.....	6.36
Nymph.....	6.70
Nymph.....	6.59
Nymph.....	6.71
Nymph.....	7.07
Nymph.....	6.79
Nymph.....	6.96
Nymph.....	6.55
Nymph.....	6.70
Nymph.....	6.45
Nymph.....	6.66
Adult—♂.....	6.86
Adult—♂.....	6.86
Adult—♂.....	6.58
Adult—♂.....	6.80
Adult—♀.....	7.00
Adult—♀.....	6.73
Average.....	6.70
Range.....	6.23-7.11

Explanation of Table 2.

Data selected showing range of pH for blood of different individuals. All animals laboratory raised and fed lettuce. Average and range of pH for all individuals tested.

TABLE 3.

SPECIES: *Melanoplus differentialis*.

Age.	pH of Blood.
Nymph.....	6.85
Nymph.....	6.43
Nymph.....	6.52
Nymph.....	6.56
Nymph.....	6.50
Nymph.....	6.75
Nymph.....	6.98
Nymph.....	6.93
Average.....	6.68
Range.....	6.42-6.98

Explanation of Table 3.

Data selected from several hundred individuals showing range of pH values. Adult values are similar to those for nymphs. Animals reared in laboratory and fed lettuce. Average and range of pH for all individuals tested.

drawing the blood up into the vessel. Individual adult grasshoppers can be punctured at least two to three times daily without any apparent injury.

TABLE 4.

Romalea microptera.¹

Date.	Stage.	Average pH of Blood.
Feb. 19, 1926.....	Nymphs	6.83
" 26, 1926.....	Nymphs	6.88
Mar. 5, 1926.....	Nymphs	6.72
" 12, 1926.....	Nymphs	6.74
" 19, 1926.....	Nymphs	6.84
" 26, 1926.....	Nymphs	6.79
Apr. 9, 1926.....	Nymphs	6.66
" 16, 1926.....	Nymphs	6.87
" 23, 1926.....	Nymphs	6.56
" 28, 1926.....	Nymphs	7.10 (?)
" 30, 1926.....	Adults	6.82
May 7, 1926.....	Adults	6.88
" 14, 1926.....	Adults	6.84
" 21, 1926.....	Adults	6.68
" 28, 1926.....	Adults	6.46
June 1, 1926.....	Adults	6.77
" 2, 1926.....	Adults	6.67
" 3, 1926.....	Adults	6.55
" 4, 1926.....	Adults	6.53
" 5, 1926.....	Adults	6.72
" 7, 1926.....	Adults	6.50
" 9, 1926.....	Adults	6.59
" 11, 1926.....	Adults	6.82
" 15, 1926.....	Adults	6.87
Average.....		6.73
Range.....		6.4-6.8

Explanation of Table 4.

Detailed average pH values for grasshoppers from day of hatching until death. Data for each day represents average readings for from 5 to 20 individuals. All animals laboratory raised and fed lettuce. Average and range of pH given for all individuals tested.

All laboratory animals were hatched from eggs laid in the laboratory and were fed lettuce. Animals were also collected

¹ The author is indebted to Dr. H. Fry for his generosity in supplying some of the eggs used in these experiments. These eggs were from a cross between *Romalea microptera* and *Romalea microptera*, variety *macri*. No differences in pH of the blood from this cross and the *R. microptera* were noted.

from the outside and comparisons made with those reared entirely under laboratory conditions.

Temperature during the course of the experiments ranged from 22 to 24° C.

TABLE 5.

Temp. 24.° C.—June 15, 1926.

	Samples—E.M.F.	Average pH.
Buffer (5.65)	(a) .57573 (b) .57580 (c) .57560	5.61
Romalea adult	(a) .65250 (b) .65555	6.90
Buffer (5.65)	(a) .58210 (b) .58088 (c) .58006	5.69
Romalea adult	(a) .64553 (b) .64553	6.79
Buffer (5.65)	(a) .58173 (b) .57953	5.67
Romalea adult	(a) .65203 (b) .65273	6.90
Buffer (5.65)	(a) .58265 (b) .57963 (c) .57963	5.67
Romalea adult	(a) .65226 (b) .65163	6.89
Buffer (5.65)	(a) .58200 (b) .57742	5.67

Explanation of Table 5.

Part of daily record for June 15, 1926, to show method of procedure in making determinations of blood pH values. Note that standard or buffer solution is always read before and after every reading on blood as check on electrode.

The results of the determinations are summarized in Tables I-5. From an examination of these it is evident that considerable variation exists in the hydrogen ion concentration of the blood of the same and different species. No marked species, sex or age differences have been detected. The variations shown can hardly be due primarily to differences in food conditions since the laboratory animals were all fed the same food, lettuce, and the out-of-door animals had varied diets depending on the locality from which they were taken. The data in the tables are summarized and do not show individual variations which are to a degree

closely similar to those indicated for groups. Readings for the same individual, however, are quite constant for any one day. An explanation for these consistent variations is not at hand.

It is of some interest to compare the present results with those obtained with colorimetric methods by Glaser (7), for grasshoppers (*Melanoplus differentialis*). This author found the range of pH values for the blood of these grasshoppers to be 7.2 to 7.6. In previous experiments (6), using a colorimetric method the average pH for the blood of many species of grasshoppers was found to be 6.8. It seems to the author that the results of Glaser (7) are too high, due doubtless to difficulties in the colorimetric method already indicated above.

Preliminary experiments on the CO₂ tension of grasshopper blood indicate a rather low value, which seems consistent with an acid pH for the blood and the mechanism of tracheal respiration.

Grasshopper blood seems to be slightly buffered, since upon dilution no marked changes in pH are detected until a dilution of two to four times is reached. Most of the buffer effects are apparently due to the fairly large amounts of phosphates which the blood contains. In contrast to mammalian blood there seems to be present rather small amounts of carbonates.

Results for pH values of blood for other insects obtained by means of electrometric methods (Bishop, 2; Brecher 3) 6.8, agree rather closely with those obtained in the present work for grasshopper blood.

SUMMARY.

The pH values for the blood of different species of grasshoppers have been determined by a micro-electrometric method. Considerable variation exists in the pH values for blood of the same species of animals. No correlations seem to exist between blood pH and age or sex. The range and average pH values for the blood of the different species of grasshoppers examined are as follows:

Species.	Range of pH.	Average pH.
<i>Melanoplus femur rubrum</i>	6.4-6.8	6.73
<i>Melanoplus differentialis</i>	6.42-6.98	6.68
<i>Chortophaga viridifasciata</i>	6.43-7.05	6.79
<i>Romalea microptera</i>	6.4-6.8	6.73

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BIOLOGICAL BULLETIN

INFLUENCE OF AGE OF MOTHER ON APPEARANCE OF AN HEREDITARY VARIATION IN *HABROBRACON*.

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Contentions about the inheritance of acquired characters have frequently involved questions of the age of the parents. Thus in trotting horses older sires or dams which have undergone considerable training have been supposed to transmit some of the benefits of this training to their offspring. Similarly, acquired knowledge, acquired immunity to disease, etc., have been stated to be transmitted. When these matters are investigated scientifically it is found that unintentional selection of parents may account for the bulk of cases. Nor is character of offspring which may be found to be correlated with parental age to be taken as proof of change in germ plasm of parents. Some non-germinal influence may be transmitted. Thus it has been shown (Hart, 1923) that Mongolian idiots are at their birth twenty-three times as likely to have mothers forty years of age or over as mothers from twenty to twenty-four. There is no good evidence that Mongolian idiocy is hereditary.

The material considered in the present paper presents clear evidence of change in average traits of offspring according to age of mothers. Discussion as to whether this difference is germinal will be reserved for a later part of the paper.

In the parasitic wasp *Habrobracon juglandis* (Ashmead) which has been bred under constant environmental conditions, abnormalities in antennæ, external genitalia or posterior part of the digestive tract occur.

Abnormal antennæ may be branched, bent or clubbed.

Gonapophyses of the female (sensory appendages forming sheath for the sting) may be swollen at the end or twisted from

their normal position; extra gonapophyses may appear in addition to the two normally present.

These abnormalities which consist in increase in size or number of parts or in malformation without reduction are to be distinguished from *deficiency*.

DEFICIENCY.

Antennal deficiency is usually evidenced by tapering and fusion of terminal joints as in right antenna of specimen shown in Plate I, Fig. *H* (Male from 1171.3c). There is, in general, a tendency toward symmetry but much irregularity. Fusion without tapering may occur or one antenna may be normal (Figs. *A* and *H*).

Males may have genitalia missing and abdomen rounded off at tip, or the normal parts may be reduced in size, twisted out of shape or lacking on one side of the body while present in almost normal condition on the other.

In Plate I., Fig. *D* is shown the ventral side of the abdomen of a normal male. Fig. *E* shows the abdomen from posterior view, somewhat oblique, with genitalia extruded. The tip is curved ventrally so that it is seen in dorsal aspect.

Figs. *A*, *B*, and *C* are from a male (Freak 6o) illustrating deficiency in antennae and genitalia on the right side of the body both anteriorly and posteriorly. Fig. *B* shows the tip of the abdomen ventrally and slightly oblique while Fig. *C* is an aspect comparable with Fig. *E*. Genitalia are completely lacking on right side, including even the right side of the penis, while posterior sternites and tergites taper off dextrally. Organs on the left are somewhat bent toward the right but otherwise normal. Sections of abdomen showed right testis and vas deferens completely lacking, left apparently normal.

Fig. *A*, ventral view of head, shows left antenna normal. It is drawn displaced from the head for economy of space. Right antenna is shortened by reduction and fusion of joints toward the tip. Right labial palpus is missing.

Figs. *K*, *L*, and *M*, show dorsal, ventral, and right aspect respectively of abdomen of normal female.

Figs. *I* and *J* show ventral and right aspect respectively of

abdomen of a deficient female (Freak 6). Great reduction and fusion of parts posteriorly, especially of gonapophyses, is to be noted. Sections show large eggs and nurse cells developing, but no trace of poison apparatus; deficiency therefore extended internally to posterior organs.

Reduction in the posterior part of the digestive tract also occurs. This may be indicated by a swollen appearance of the abdomen with an abnormally dark color, due to failure of elimination of fecal matter. Sections show different degrees of defect ranging from an apparent failure of the proctenteron to connect with the mid-gut, to a complete disappearance of the former and considerable reduction of the latter posteriorly. This reduction may shorten the Malpighian tubules until they are little knobs on the posterior end of the mid-gut sack, or the latter may be rounded off smoothly. Fig. *F* shows a specimen of this type from a female (Freak 21) with no external genitalia. There were no hind-gut, no Malpighian tubules, no poison apparatus. In the ovaries nurse cells were present but ova were small. The posterior compound nerve ganglion was normal.

Fig. *G* is from a male (Freak 20) with no external genitalia, and no hind-gut posterior to the Malpighian tubules which are short and thick. The mid-gut is much swollen with fecal matter. Testes were present, filled with mature sperm but there were no vasa deferentia. The posterior compound nerve ganglion was separated into its three elements.

RARE OCCURRENCE OF ABNORMALITIES IN NORMAL STOCKS.

Among 53,148 males and 16,036 females of normal stocks the following abnormalities in antennæ, genitalia, and digestive tract have appeared.

Only twelve females had abnormal gonapophyses.

Abnormal antennæ were recorded in only thirty males and twenty-six females. These may be classified as having one or more antennæ short, sixteen; absent, twenty-eight; clubbed, one; branched, three; and unclassified, eight. Two of those having short antennæ were males with deficient genitalia.

Association between deficiency in genitalia and digestive tract is much closer. Males deficient in genitalia alone were twenty-

four; in digestive tract alone, fifty-five; and in genitalia and digestive tract, fifteen. Females deficient in genitalia alone were nine; in digestive tract alone, twenty-two; and in genitalia and digestive tract, nine.

These figures illustrate the rare occurrence of these abnormalities in normal stocks.

Deficiencies in genitalia necessarily entail sterility. Mating reactions are in all cases quite normal. A male having no trace of external genitalia and internal much reduced will mount a female and beat its antennæ in the usual manner. Females with reduced genitalia or abdomen swollen and blackened by fecal matter show characteristic responses to caterpillars. Although wasps with deficient digestive tract live only a few days and females lay but few eggs or none it has sometimes been possible to obtain offspring from them. These offspring are usually normal.

STRAIN SHOWING HEREDITARY DEFICIENCY IN GENITALIA AND DIGESTIVE TRACT.

Hereditary deficiency in genitalia and in digestive tract arose from the combination of material from Lancaster, Pennsylvania, and Iowa City, Iowa. No deficient occurred in the direct line of Iowa City ancestry which included 598 males and 543 females running back to the original female. An I male was crossed to an L female, stock 6. An F₂ male from this cross was mated to an L female, stock 10. This resulted in fifty-three normal males and 130 normal females, besides one female with deficient digestive tract. This is the first occurrence of the character in the ancestry. A sister of this female produced 224 normal males one of which was mated to an I female. Fifty normal males and ninety-six normal females resulted. One of these females produced 139 normal males, five deficient males and one impregnate female. (Female from unfertilized egg—from 934.5.)

Descendents of this impregnate female include in all 209 fraternities. Inbreeding was carried on by simply isolating individual females after they had had a chance to mate with their brothers. Ratios of deficient in these fraternities varied erratically and a large number of insects died immature. The latter were recorded without reference to sex.

Ratios of deficient among the males in the 209 fraternities were arranged in a frequency distribution. Grouped to the nearest 2 per cent. they ranged from 0 to 58 per cent. with frequencies 57, 6, 4, 9, 11, 21, 19, 8, 6, 5, 7, 5, 3, 8, 6, 6, 5, 5, 0, 6, 2, 0, 0, 2, 0, 2, 0, 1, 1, 2, besides two fraternities each consisting of a single deficient individual.

131 of these fraternities included females with ratios of deficient ranging from 0 to 34 per cent. Corresponding frequencies were 80, 1, 10, 9, 7, 2, 4, 7, 2, 2, 1, 0, 0, 3, 1, 0, 0, 2. There were also two small fraternities, one with one deficient to one normal and the other with four deficient to two normal.

Percentage of wasps dying immaturely were calculated for the 209 different fraternities. These ranged from 0 to 32 with frequencies 125, 11, 17, 19, 12, 5, 6, 2, 3, 1, 3, 0, 1, 1, 2, 0, 1.

There were 10,335 males and 2,165 females in the entire group.

Frequency According to Age of Mother.

In a special line of this deficient stock consisting of thirty-seven cultures there were 2,094 males with 540 or 25.788 per cent. deficient, 468 females with 43 or 9.188 per cent. deficient, and among the total of 2,732 there were 170 or 6.223 per cent. dying immature.

Females are transferred every four or five days and culture vials labelled *a*, *b*, *c*, etc. Thus if offspring be summarized according to letter of vial average changes in progeny according to age of mothers may be obtained. Table *A* and Chart 1 show

TABLE A.

OFFSPRING OF STRAIN DEFICIENT IN GENITALIA AND DIGESTIVE TRACT ARRANGED ACCORDING TO AGE OF MOTHER (VIALS).

	Vial.							Total.
	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>g</i>	
Males, Total.....	694	458	370	318	148	70	36	2,094
Deficient.....	109	135	129	120	34	10	3	540
Females, Total.....	168	196	96	8				468
Deficient.....	12	17	14	0				43
Total.....	888	706	513	358	160	71	36	2,732
Immature deaths...	26	52	47	32	12	1	0	170

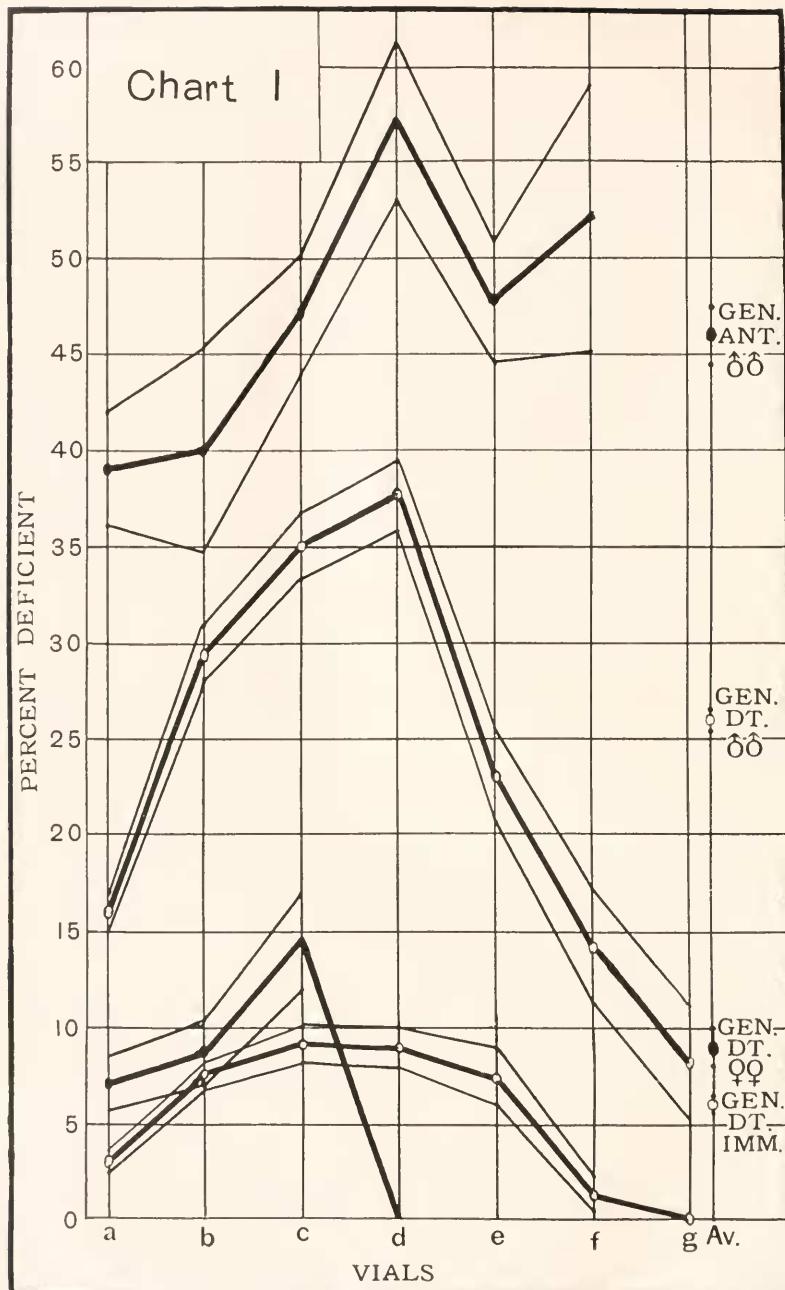


CHART I. Percentage of deficient offspring according to age of mothers. Culture vials through which mothers were successively transferred are denoted by *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *g*. Mothers remained in each vial between four and five days. *Gen.* *Ant.* and *Gen.* *Dt.* denote offspring from mothers of strains in which deficiency in genitalia was associated with deficiency in antennae and in digestive tract respectively. For actual numbers see Tables A and D.

TABLE B.

OFFSPRING DEFICIENT IN GENITALIA OR DIGESTIVE TRACT ARRANGED ACCORDING TO TYPE OF DEFICIENCY AND AGE OF MOTHER (VIALS).

	Vial.							
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	Total.
<i>Males</i>								
(Genitalia reduced): actual.....	6	10	7	5	1	0	0	29
per cent.....	5.5	7.4	5.4	4.2	2.9	0	0	5.37
(Genitalia absent): actual.....	74	100	79	85	22	7	3	370
per cent.....	67.9	74.1	61.2	70.8	64.7	70.0	100.0	68.52
(Deficient digestive tract): actual.....	4	0	5	5	1	1	0	16
per cent.....	3.7	0	3.9	4.2	2.9	10.0	0	2.96
(Deficient genitalia and digestive tract): actual.....	25	25	38	25	10	2	0	125
per cent.....	22.9	18.5	29.0	20.8	29.4	20.0	0	23.14
<i>Females</i>								
(Deficient genitalia): actual.....	2	3	1					6
per cent.....	16.6	17.6	7.1					13.95
(Deficient digestive tract): actual.....	8	13	11					32
per cent.....	66.6	76.4	78.6					74.42
(Deficient genitalia and digestive tract): actual.....	2	1	2					5
per cent.....	16.6	5.8	14.3					11.63

results of such summarizing for this group. It may be noted that tendency toward production of deficiency is relatively low when mothers are young but increases up to the tenth to fourteenth day when it rapidly falls. Essentially the same form of curve is seen for deficient males, deficient females, and immature deaths but data for females are rather meager.

The various types of deficient as they occurred in the different bottles are recorded in Table *B*.

By glancing at the percentages in this table it may be seen that there is no consistent and significant change in ratio of any type of deficiency according to the age of the mother. The continuous increase in females with deficient digestive tract is not to be regarded as significant because of small numbers.

Crosses of Deficient and Normal Stocks.

All females of the deficient line were lost through their failure to produce daughters. Their sons were crossed with normal L stocks. Daughters were back-crossed to the same males for three generations. Although the males came from the selected material and were used as parents for four successive generations, the ratio of deficient did not exceed two per cent. 6,954 wasps of the third generation were bred. Wasps were deficient in genitalia alone, ninety-six; in digestive tract alone, twenty; in genitalia and digestive tract, fourteen.

A male from the selected deficient line was crossed to a female from Iowa City stock 11. The male had orange eyes, wrinkled wings, defective r_4 vein, and yellow mesosternum. Stock 11 is characterized by black eyes, flat wings, normal r_4 vein and sooty mesosternum. Orange acts as a unit with no overlapping, wrinkled has but little. Defective and sooty are variable multiple factor characters in this cross.

The deficient in F_2 numbered among 2,252 males only thirty-five or 1.55 per cent., and among 957 females only five or 0.52 per cent.

The thirty-five males included nineteen orange, fifteen wrinkled, and twenty sooty. Among the twenty in which venation could be determined ten had defective r_4 . There is thus no association between deficiency and the characters mentioned.

These males were classified as genitalia aberrant, one; genitalia lacking, nineteen; digestive tract deficient, nine. Four females were deficient in digestive tract, one in genitalia and digestive tract.

STRAIN SHOWING HEREDITARY DEFICIENCY IN GENITALIA AND ANTENNAE.

Deficiency in genitalia and in antennæ characterized cultures derived from a female of Lancaster stock 10. Deficiency in digestive tract did not occur among these with the exception of a single male (of fraternity F₁A in Table C). This specimen was also deficient in genitalia and antennæ.

TABLE C.

MALES SHOWING DEFICIENCY IN ANTENNAE AND GENITALIA. THREE GENERATIONS DESCENDED FROM "MUTANT" FEMALE FROM STOCK 10.

Fraternities.	Total.	Deficient.			Total Deficient.	Per Cent. Deficient.
		Genitalia.	Antennæ.	Genitalia and Antennæ.		
F ₁ A.....	104	6	4	21	47*	45.2
F ₂ A.....	3				0	0.0
B.....	9				0	0.0
C.....	22				0	0.0
D.....	72		1		1	1.4
E.....	115		2		2	1.7
F.....	39		1		1	2.6
G.....	66	3	2		5	7.6
H.....	10		1		1	10.0
I.....	12			4	4	33.3
J.....	30	2	3	8	13	43.3
K.....	76		4	30	34	44.7
L.....	112	8	1	47	56	50.0
F ₃ A.....	81				0	0.0
B.....	88	1	2		3	3.4
C.....	151		6	62	68	45.0
Total.....						
F ₁ A.....						
F ₂ I-L.....	485	16	18	172	222*	45.8
F ₃ C.....						
Total.....						
F ₂ A-H.....	505	4	9		13	2.6
F ₃ A-B.....						

* Sixteen unclassified deficient of vial α are included here.

The stock 10 female was isolated as a virgin August 1924. After passing through vials *a*, *b*, and *c* she was mated to her sons from *a*. Daughters appeared in the succeeding bottles. Her progeny totalled 104 males, twenty females, and one immature.

All the females were set. Eight proved sterile and twelve fertile. In later generations female sterility also appeared. In the total line there were seventy-two females set of which twenty-one failed to produce offspring although they lived the average length of time.

There were 473 females in the whole line of which one had deficient genitalia, one had tapering antennæ and one showed both defects.

There were recorded only four immature deaths.

Males of F_1 , F_2 , and F_3 from one F_2 fraternity are recorded in Table *C*. Other F_3 males and males of later generations consisted of 489 normal and eight deficient. These eight occurred in F_3 after which no more appeared.

The fraternities of males recorded in Table *C* evidently fall into at least two groups.

The six fraternities F_1A , F_2I-L , and F_3C are the only ones showing males with deficiency both in genitalia and in antennæ. They are highly deficient, the ratio averaging 45.8 per cent.

Deficiencies in antennæ and in genitalia are highly correlated in this group for they both occur in 172 cases out of 206. (Vial *a* of the F_1 generation could not be included in this total as the deficient were not separated into the three groups.) The remaining ten fraternities of Table *C*, F_2A-H , F_3A-B , with 505 males have only thirteen or 2.6 per cent. deficient. None of these is deficient in both characters.

Frequency According to Age of Mother.

The males of the six fraternities showing High Deficiency have been summarized with respect to vials in order to test influence of age of mother on ratio of deficient offspring. Table *D* gives results of this summary and Chart 1 shows percentage frequencies.

The rise from *a* to *d* is, as in the case of deficiency in genitalia, associated with deficiency in digestive tract, clearly significant. The analogous drop to *e* is of doubtful significance; the subsequent rise of no significance.

TABLE D.

MALES OF STRAIN DEFICIENT IN GENITALIA AND ANTENNAE ARRANGED ACCORDING TO AGE OF MOTHER (VIALS).

	Vial.						Total.
	a	b	c	d	e	f	
Total.....	116	40	123	72	111	23	485
Deficient.....	45	16	58	38	53	12	222

It may be concluded that age of mother is an effective factor in determining this type of deficiency.

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY.

Deficiency or reduction in antennae, in external genitalia, and in posterior part of the digestive tract occurs occasionally in individuals of normal stocks.

Two cases of marked hereditary deficiency present some interesting points of difference. In one, deficiency in genitalia was associated with deficiency in digestive tract and many immature deaths occurred. The trait was increased and maintained by selection but very few fraternities approximated 50 per cent. even among the males. Great variability in ratios in the different fraternities and failure to recover the stock by breeding normal up to males of selected deficient indicate that the character is genetically complex.

In the other case, deficiency in genitalia was associated with deficient antennae. There was no increase in immature deaths over those normally occurring but much female sterility. The line originated from a female from stock supposedly normal. Fraternities fell into at least two groups. In one the deficient averaged 2.6 per cent. of the total and were deficient either in genitalia or in antennae but not in both. In the other they averaged 45.8 per cent. of the total, the majority of them being deficient both in antennae and in genitalia. The facts indicate genetic complexity.

Percentage of deficient offspring varies according to age of the mother in both cases. It increases up to approximately the tenth

or fourteenth day of adult life and then decreases. No consistent change in type of deficiency according to mother's age could be detected.

Possible explanations of this rise and subsequent fall of ratio of deficient during life of mother may be considered.

Cytoplasm or yolk of eggs might differ according to some rhythm in the life of the female. The influence would have to be carried through the larval period and up to the time of the formation of the organs in the pupa.

Something in the food of the larva might vary according to the age of the mother, some ingredient of the fluid injected at time of stinging the caterpillars.

Neither of these theories involves genetic change in maternal contribution.

A third explanation may be suggested. It has been shown that linkage in *Drosophila* varies with age of mother. If this is true in *Habrobracon* a difference in genetic composition of offspring according to the mother's age may be brought about. In order to test this possibility records on a lethal factor linked with orange were reinvestigated (Whiting, P. W., 1921) and the five fraternities involving linkage were summarized according to vials. Results are given in Table E. The difference between vials *a* and

TABLE E.

CROSS-OVERS OF A LETHAL LINKED WITH ORANGE ARRANGED ACCORDING TO AGE OF MOTHER.

	Vial.				
	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>d-f</i>	Total.
Cross-overs.....	14/73	18/108	19/63	8/57	59/301
Total.....					
Per cent.....	19.2 ± 3.1	16.7 ± 2.4	30.2 ± 3.9	14.0 ± 3.1	

b is of no significance. There is an increase in cross-overs from *b* to *c*, 13.5 ± 4.6 per cent., which is probably significant and a decrease after *c*, 16.1 ± 5.0 per cent. which is also probably significant. If this rise and fall of crossing-over according to age is proved when further linked factors are found, it may be the most reasonable explanation of change in ratio of deficient.

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EXPLANATION OF PLATE I.

All figures have been drawn with camera lucida. Drawings have been reduced two thirds. Final magnifications are $\times 32$ for Figs. *A-H*, $\times 15$ for Figs. *I-M*.

FIGS. *A*, *B* AND *C*. Ventral view of head, ventral and posterior views of tip of abdomen of deficient male (Freak 60).

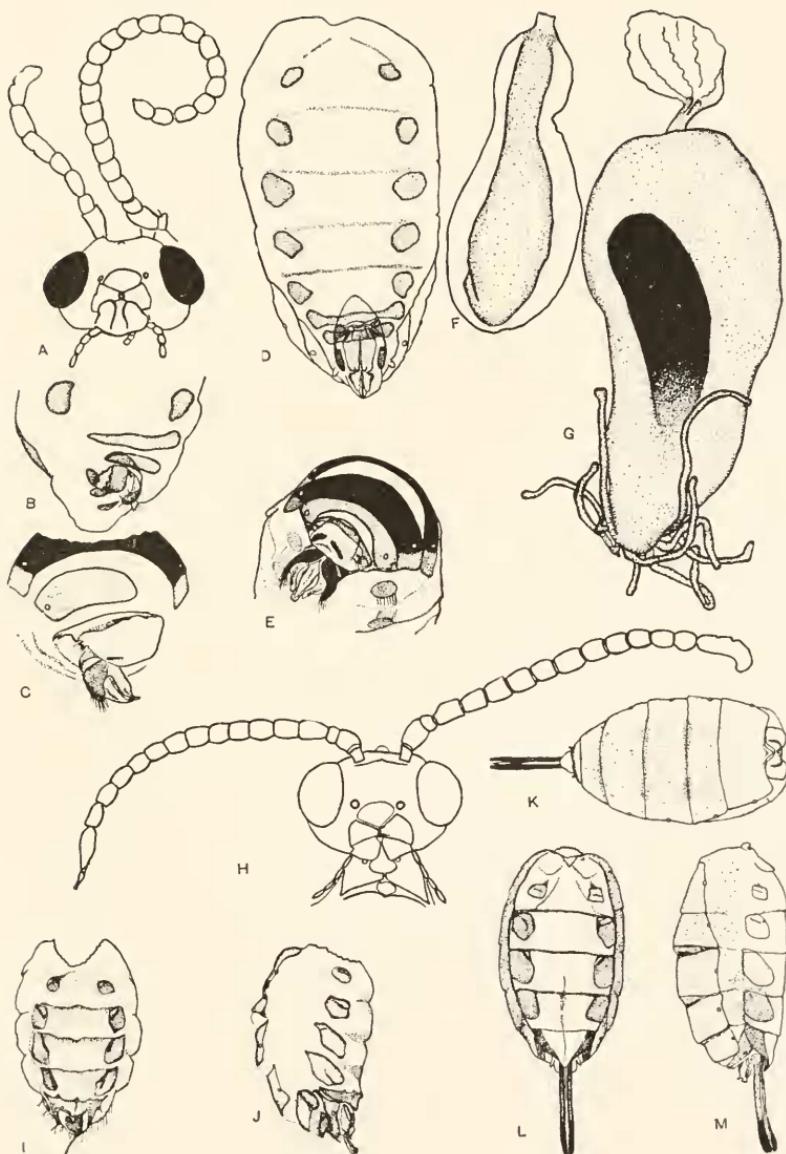
FIGS. *D* AND *E*. Ventral and posterior views of abdomen of normal male.

FIGS. *F* AND *G*. Abdominal portion of digestive tracts of deficient female (Freak 21) and deficient male (Freak 20).

FIG. *H*. Anterior view of head of deficient male (from 1171.3c).

FIGS. *I* AND *J*. Ventral and right views of abdomen of deficient female (Freak 6).

FIGS. *K*, *L* AND *M*. Dorsal, ventral and right views of abdomen of normal female.



GAMETIC MEIOSIS IN *MONOCYSTIS*.

GARY N. CALKINS AND RACHEL C. BOWLING.

The monocystids of the earthworm, probably the commonest and most frequently found type of gregarine, have never been completely monographed, although an excellent start in this direction was made by Hesse (1909). Cytological studies have been made by Wolters (1891), Cuénot (1901), Shellack (1912), and Mulsow (1911), the latter finding typical gametic meiosis or chromosome reduction in a species which he regarded as new and to which he gave the name *Monocystis rostrata*. In this form which he named from the presence of an attenuated proboscis-like end of the cell, he found eight chromosomes of characteristic form and size. This number of chromosomes was found in the first nuclear spindle of the gamont after metamorphosis of the vegetative nucleus, and the same number was present in the successive spindles of the succeeding progametic nuclei and until the final division when the gametes are formed. In this ultimate division Mulsow found that whereas eight chromosomes are present in the nuclear plate of the mitotic figure at the metaphase only four chromosomes are present in the daughter plates of the anaphase stage and only four chromosomes are present in each of the two resulting gametes. Here then the haploid number of chromosomes is characteristic of only one set of cells, viz. the gametes, of the entire life cycle. Upon fusion of two gametes the diploid number is restored and this diploid number is characteristic of the entire vegetative cycle including all of the progametic nuclei. The actual reduction in number of chromosomes according to this account agrees in point of time with the corresponding meiotic phase in the great majority of the metazoa, a type which Wilson describes as gametic meiosis.

A very different time of reduction in chromosome number was described by Dobell in connection with gamete formation, fertilization, and metagamic divisions of the coccidian *Aggregata eberthi*, and by Jameson in connection with the gregarine *Diplo-*

cystis schneideri (Dobell and Jameson, 1915). This joint paper was followed later by individual papers on each of the two types (Dobell, 1925; Jameson, 1920). In both of these types the authors found that the progametic divisions are all alike including the last or gamete-forming division, in having nuclei with the same number of chromosomes, and that this number is the same in all of the vegetative stages. The zygotes, alone of all cells of the vegetative cycle, have the double or diploid number of chromosomes. Meiosis or reduction in number of chromosomes takes place with the first mitotic division of the zygote, a type known as zygotic meiosis. The individuals which one ordinarily encounters of these two species are therefore haploid as regards chromosome number.

From these findings Dobell and Jameson make the generalization that zygotic meiosis is probably universal in Gregarinida and Coccidia and they interpret Mulsow's account of reduction in *Monocystis rostrata* as evidence of confusion by him of two species of *Monocystis*, one with eight the other with four chromosomes. It seems a little premature to say the least to sweep away contradictory evidence in this fashion when a re-examination of *Monocystis* in the light of Dobell and Jameson's work would clear up the matter. The cytological results of such a re-examination are presented herewith.

There are many species of *Monocystis* in earthworms some of which are apparently limited to certain species of worms. We have restricted our investigation to the parasites of the seminal vesicles of one species—*Lumbricus terrestris*. Here several species of monocystid gregarines are found, some almost invariably present, others less frequently. We have frequently encountered the large form with a proboscis-like end which undoubtedly corresponds with Mulsow's *Monocystis rostrata* (450 μ long by 220 μ broad). We have not seen the long thread-like form which Hesse names *Nematocystis magna* (*Monocystis magna* Schmidt) and is said to be from 4.5 mm. to 5 mm. long and only 50 μ in diameter. We have not seen *Monocystis striata* Hesse with its longitudinal grooves and striations which are described as frequently prolonged posteriorly to form a tuft of filaments as in the genus *Zygomycystis*. We often find *Monocystis agilis* which can

be easily identified and we often find another species which might be regarded as one of the varieties of *Monocystis lumbrixi* which are not precisely described in the literature.

Cuénnot (1901) Brasil (1905) and Hesse (1909) all remark on the difficulty of tracing a pair of pseudo-conjugants of *Monocystis* back to the individual agamonts which form the subjects of the specific descriptions. Where only one type of gregarine is present in an organ the assumption is safe that the cysts found in the organ come from that one type. When, however, there may be as many as five different species present at the same time, as is the case in the seminal vesicles of *Lumbricus terrestris*, then the problem is real. There is indeed a real danger of confusing sporocysts from different species and of getting a false interpretation of the life history of any one. On the other hand, if the species of *Monocystis* were based upon the size and structure of the sporocysts and sporoblasts instead of upon the agamont stages the difficulties of identification attendant upon multiple infection would be materially lessened.

While an ideal condition would be the indisputable association of a given agamont with its definitive sporocyst in these monocystids, for our purpose such an ideal is unnecessary. In all gregarines two individuals upon reaching maturity become associated in pairs (pseudo-conjugation) and a capsule, called the sporocyst capsule or simply sporocyst, is formed about them (Fig. 1). These gamonts then proceed to form gametes by repeated divisions of the originally single nucleus in each, the gametes ultimately appearing as a zone of small nucleated cells budded out from the periphery of the gamonts. The gametes from one parent cell then meet and fuse with the gametes from the associated cell. The zygotes thus formed by fusion two by two are practically equal in number to the total number of gametes formed by either one of the associated parent cells. Each zygote forms its individual capsule termed the sporoblast capsule within which the zygote nucleus, an amphinucleus, divides a certain number of times, usually three. The eight resulting nuclei become the nuclei of the definitive germs termed sporozoites.

It is no more difficult to recognize different specimens of the

same type of cysts and sporoblasts than it is to recognize different individuals of the same species of *Monocystis*. The structure of the agamont protoplasm, the nature of the sporocyst capsule, the

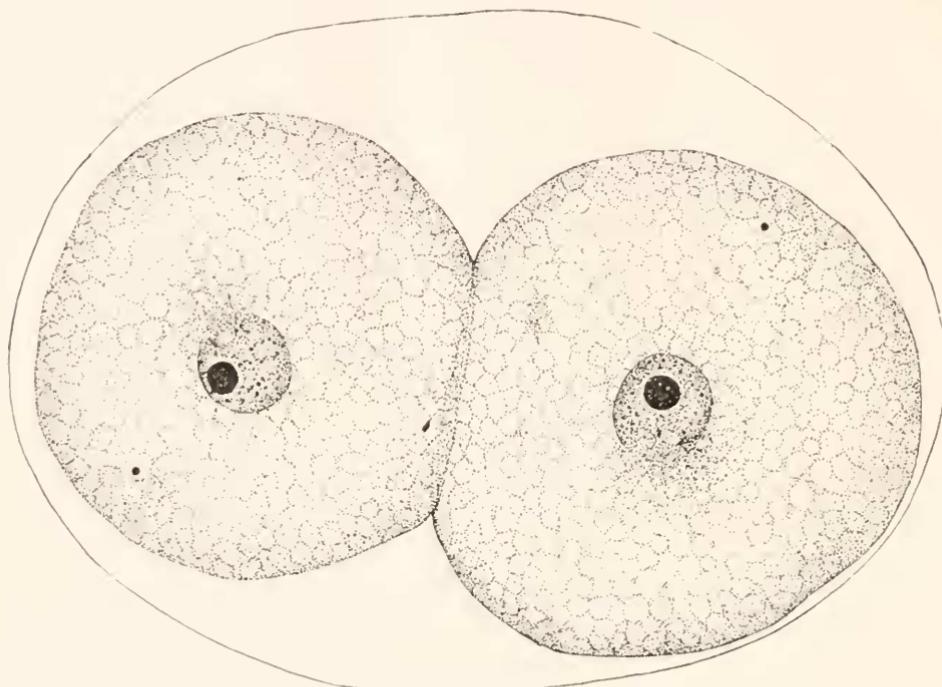


FIG. 1. *Monocystis* species. Two gamonts in pseudo-conjugation in sporocyst capsule. Nuclei beginning metamorphosis. Minute spindles in substance of centrosphere. Smear preparation. Camera lucida. $\times 900$.

appearance of the nuclei in size and character together with the number of chromosomes, are factors involved in the recognition of a cyst of a certain species. We have been no more fortunate than our predecessors in tracing the indisputable connection between a specific agamont and the sporozoites which it ultimately forms and for this reason we beg the question of the particular species of *Monocystis* with which we are dealing. We are confident however that we have followed the history of one single species.

We have chosen for particular study the cysts containing the largest sporoblasts and the largest gametes because their nuclei

give the clearest pictures of the nuclear contents. The total number of gametes formed by both gamonts in this species is approximately 130 and the number of sporoblasts is approximately 65. The protoplasm is uniformly alveolar, clear, and with alveoli of medium size. The nucleus of the gamont is spherical and contains a single spherical endosome.

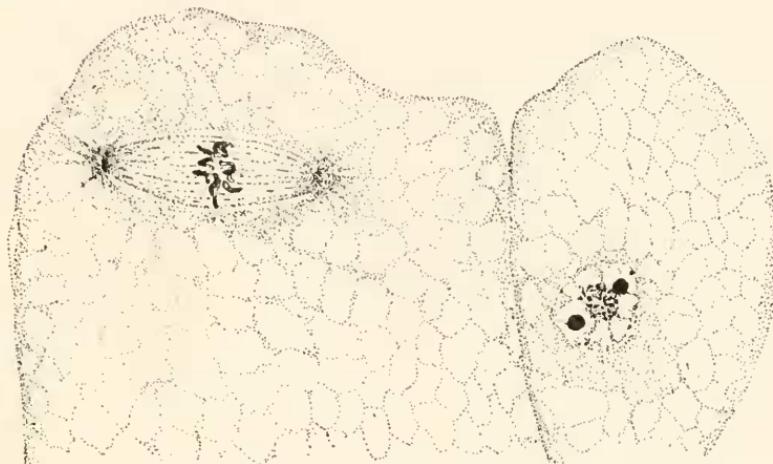


FIG. 2. First pregametic spindle with 10 chromosomes in one gamont; portion of disintegrating nucleus in the other. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 2650$.

The material was fixed in hot Schaudinn's fluid consisting of a saturated solution of bichloride of mercury in absolute alcohol without and with 5 per cent. of glacial acetic acid. Seminal vesicles were removed entire from richly infected earthworms and immersed after puncturing, in the killing fluid where they were left for from two to four hours. They were then treated for twenty-four hours with iodized alcohol, embedded in paraffine and cut in sections from three to four microns thick. The sections were stained with iron haematoxylin without or with a counter stain. Other stains were tried but the best results were obtained with iron haematoxylin.

The metamorphosis of the gamont nucleus begins with the condensation of the chromatin and formation of the chromosomes. At this stage the latter are feebly staining and even in the metaphase of the first division they do not stain with the same intensity as in the later progamous divisions or as they do in the

developing zygote. An astrosphere is condensed from the cytoplasmic reticulum at one pole of the nucleus and the nuclear membrane disappears at this region. We did not observe a stage in which a single centriole could be found in the astrosphere, the earliest stage seen being a minute spindle which appeared to be formed in the substance of the astrosphere in the region which had been occupied by the now dissolved nuclear membrane (Fig. 1). This spindle enlarges until it occupies fully one half of the diameter of the cell (Fig. 2). The short, rod-shape or slightly curved chromosomes are ten in number. The daughter nuclei when fully divided may be separated by the full diameter of the cell, and remains of the spindle substances trail out behind them marking the path of the spindle (Fig. 3).

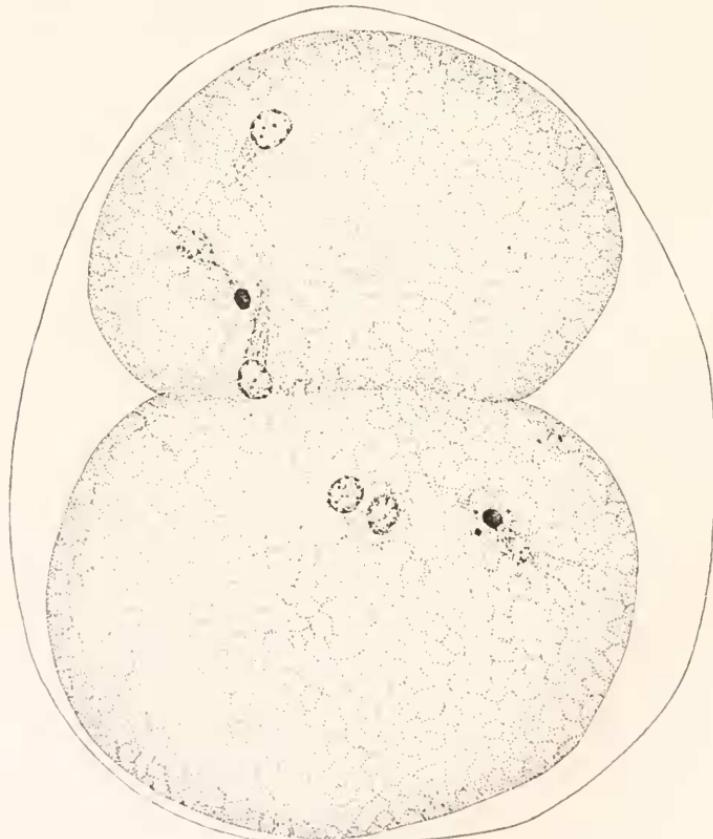


FIG. 3. Two gamonts after first pregametic nuclear division. Smear. Camera lucida. $\times 900$.

The subsequent spindle figures are characterized by the increasingly intense staining capacity of the chromosomes while the size of the nuclei decreases. There is a tendency for the

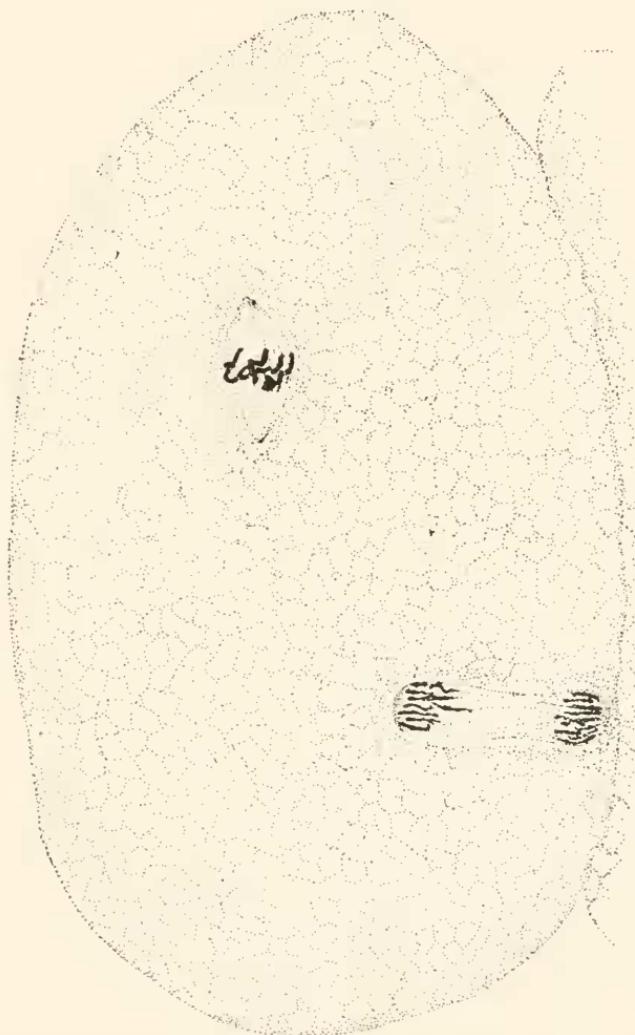


FIG. 4. Third pregametic division of nuclei with 10 chromosomes. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 1750$.

daughter nuclei after each division to approach the periphery and the final progamous nuclear spindle lies in a plane tangential to the surface (Figs. 4 and 5). In some cases the spindle occupies a bud which stands out from the surface in characteristic fashion

(Fig. 7). Such tangential nuclear figures are typical of the final progamous division, and their products become the gamete nuclei.

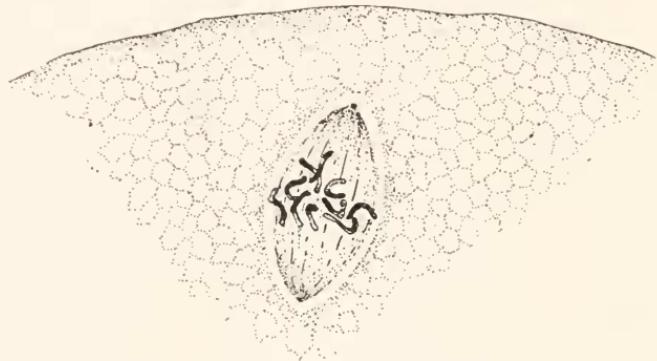


FIG. 5. Detail of a spindle during the third pregametic division. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 2650$.

In the tangential nuclei as in the earlier pregametic nuclei we have seen no evidence of a prophase skein stage. Metaphase stages of division are frequently found (Fig. 6) and early and late



FIG. 6. Group of spindles in the metaphase stage of the last pregametic division, one showing polar view of a nuclear plate. From different individuals; all with 10 chromosomes. Sections. Camera lucida. $\times 1750$.

anaphase stages. In these the number of chromosomes is always ten (Figs. 7 and 8). In the metaphase stage of the tangential

spindles there are likewise ten chromosomes, but these ten do not divide longitudinally. They are separated into two groups of five chromosomes each, easily distinguishable in the anaphase

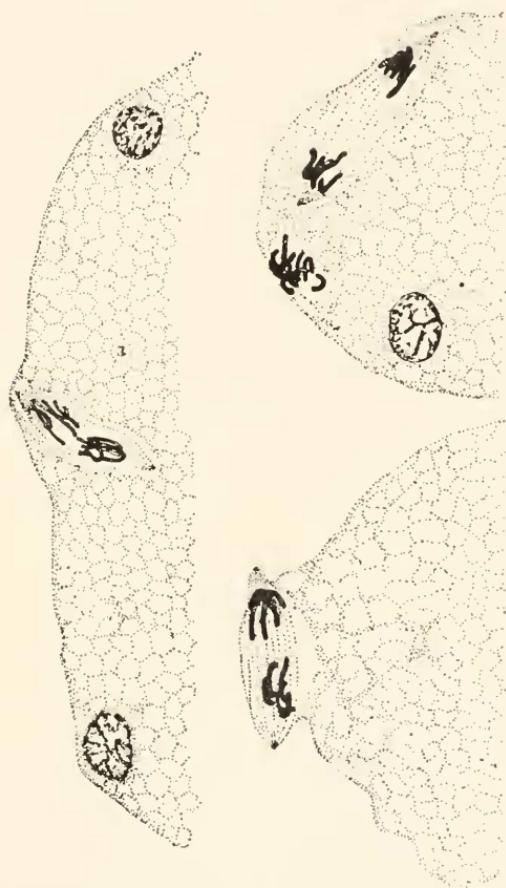


FIG. 7. Group of spindles in the anaphase stage of the last pregametic division; from different individuals. 5 chromosomes in the daughter plates. Sections. Camera lucida. $\times 1750$.

groups (Figs. 7 and 8). Reduction in number of chromosomes from 10 to 5 therefore takes place with the last progamous division.

The chromosomes are not sufficiently different in shape and size to furnish any evidence of coupling. Two daughter groups are represented in Fig. 8; some are U-shape others are usually somewhat sigmoid in character, but the differences are not so



FIG. 8. Anaphase stage of last premeiotic division and 3 groups of chromosomes from other spindles in the same stage. Sections. Camera lucida. $\times 2650$.

marked as in the case of *Aggregata* or as in Mulsow's *Monocystis rostrata*.

The gametes are relatively large, spherical to ovoidal in shape and without constant dimorphism although minor variations in

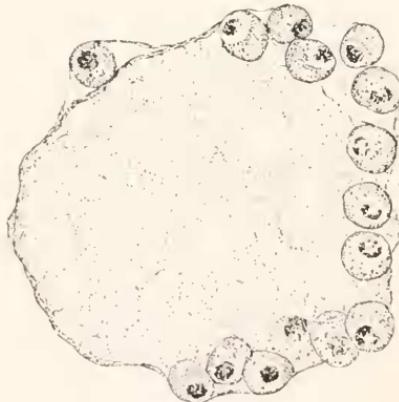


FIG. 9. Characteristic grouping of gametes around periphery of gamont. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 600$.

size may be observed even in gametes from the same gamont (Fig. 9). The nuclei are usually near the anterior end of the cell

(Fig. 10) and when two gametes come together, fusion begins at this nucleated end. The nuclei fuse and the zygote secretes a delicate plastic membrane which is transformed later into the rigid sporoblast capsule (Figs. 11, 12 and 13). At this early

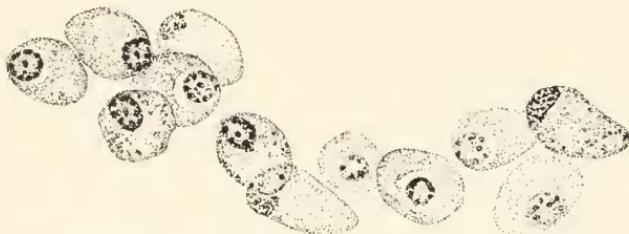


FIG. 10. Group of gametes. Smear. Camera lucida. $\times 900$.

period of the zygote the form is quite variable owing to the plasticity of the membrane (Fig. 15). The amphinucleus swells and becomes more conspicuous by reason of the more intensely staining chromatin. The chromomeres become arranged in a loose spireme which appears to be continuous (Fig. 14). The

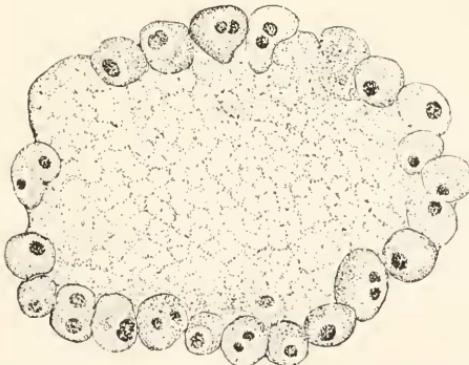


FIG. 11. Characteristic grouping of gametes and zygotes about gametocyte. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 600$.

threads are double and break up into 10 chromosomes. A spindle is formed with definite poles and fibrils but the latter are not as sharply defined as in the progamous divisions (Fig. 15). In the anaphase stage 10 chromosomes are present in each daughter plate (Fig. 14).

After this first metagamic division, which is not accompanied by cell division, we were unable to make out any definite spindle



FIG. 12. Group of gametes undergoing fusion to form zygotes. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 900$.



FIG. 13. Group of zygotes with stages in fusion of the nuclei. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 1750$.

formation. The two daughter nuclei soon divide again, an inference formed by reason of the comparatively rare occurrence of the binucleated sporoblast. The two nuclei give rise to four

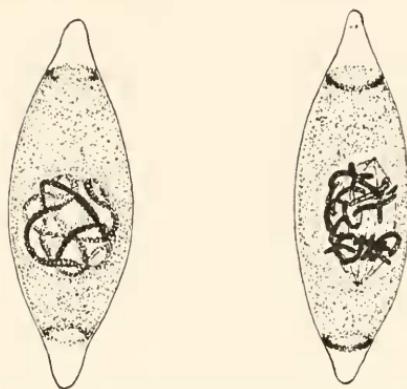


FIG. 14. Young sporoblasts, one with nucleus in spireme stage, the other with nucleus in anaphase stage of division with 10 chromosomes in each daughter plate. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 2300$.

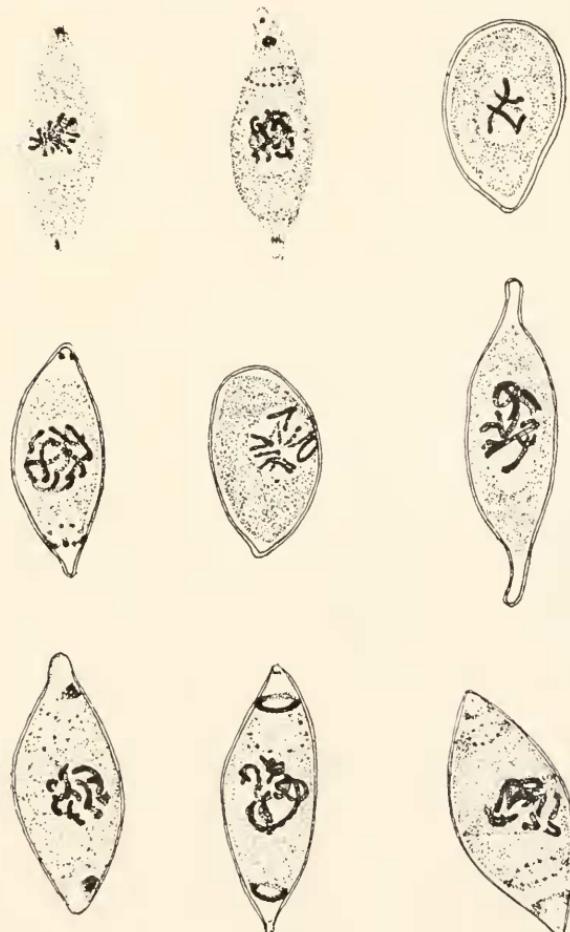


FIG. 15. Group of young sporoblasts in different stages. Sections. Camera lucida. $\times 1750$.

without division of the cell and such sporoblasts with four nuclei are much more common than are the binucleated ones (Fig. 16).

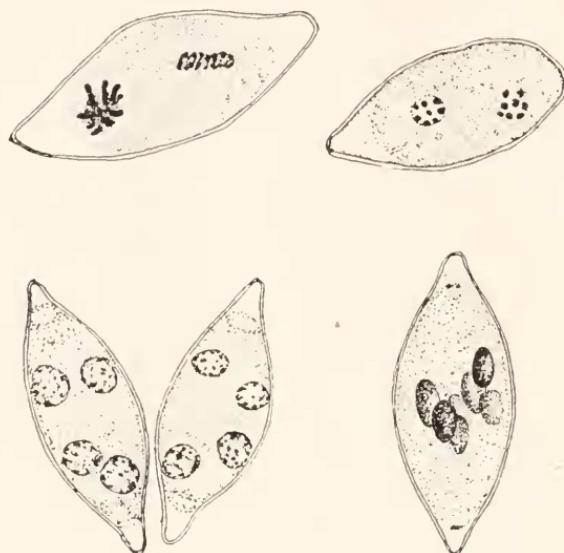


FIG. 16. Group of developing sporoblasts, 2 with 2 nuclei, 2 with 4 nuclei and one with 8 nuclei—no cytoplasmic division. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 1750$.

A third division gives rise to the eight nuclei of the sporozoites and at this stage the cytoplasm divides into eight elongated cells each bearing a nucleus; each is a sporozoite (Figs. 16 and 17).

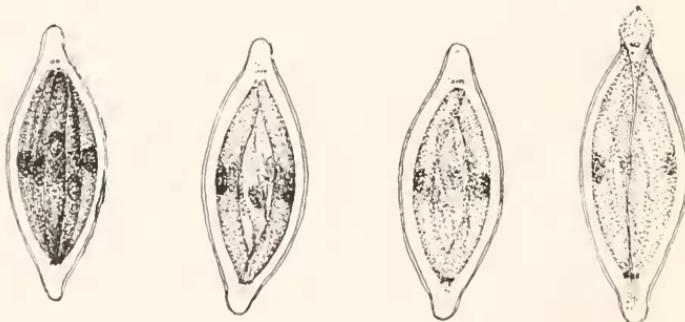


FIG. 17. Group of late sporoblasts from one sporocyst, each with 8 sporozoites. In one the sporoblast suture is clearly indicated. Section. Camera lucida. $\times 1750$.

During this later period the sporoblast capsule becomes definitely formed and rigid; near each pole a distinct ring of more

intensely staining substance is conspicuous. The origin and significance of these rings will be considered in a later paper. In old sporoblasts a definite suture or groove runs down the sporoblast capsule on both sides from pole to pole, indicating the presence of two valves and a prospective opening by dehiscence (Fig. 17).

The chromosome history of this gregarine thus does not bear out the generalization made by Dobell and Jameson that zygotic meiosis is probably characteristic of all gregarines. It is more probable that both zygotic and gametic meiosis occur in this group, the former probably in forms like *Echinomera hispida* (Shellack, 1907) which has 5 chromosomes, in *Nina gracilis* (Léger and Duboscq, 1909) which has 5 chromosomes, and in *Monocystis ovata* (Shellack, 1912) which has 3 chromosomes, and in other forms with similar odd numbers of chromosomes.

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PRELIMINARY NOTE ON A NEW PROTOZOAN
PARASITE OF EARTHWORMS OF THE
GENUS *EUTYPHÆUS*.

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In the course of a recent study of the earthworms of Burma a large protozoan parasite of unusual form was frequently encountered. The writer can discover no reference to any parasitic animal of similar form in the literature. The following descrip-

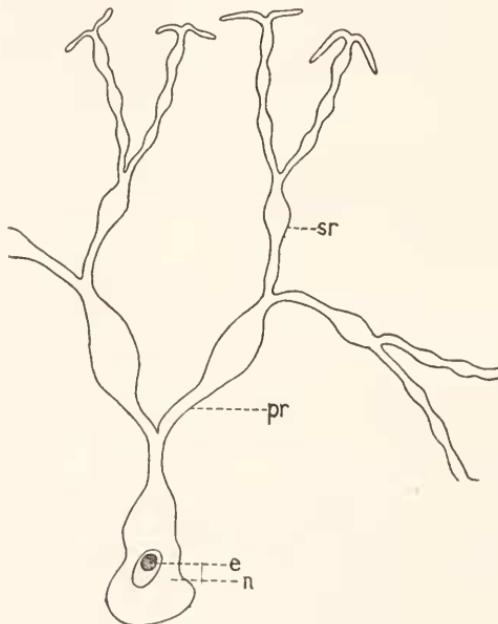


FIG. 1. Part of a trophozoite. (Camera lucida.) *s.r.*, secondary ramus; *p.r.*, primary ramus; *n.*, nuclear membrane; *e.*, endosome.

tion will therefore be of interest to zoölogists, although it should be understood that the present paper attempts nothing more than the presentation in a preliminary way of data gathered during a study of the host animal.

The parasites may be as long as 4 mm. To the unaided eye

the animal presents a smooth creamy-white appearance, or very rarely, a light brownish tinge. The latter color, however, is probably due to a staining action on the parasite of some substance from the host. The large unattached end of the animal is bluntly rounded. At a greater or less distance from this end the body branches into two rami each of which is narrower than the main trunk (Fig. 1). Each of the two primary rami branch again to form two smaller secondary rami. This branching continues until eight or sixteen small ramuli are produced. The region at which ramification begins is not constant in position.

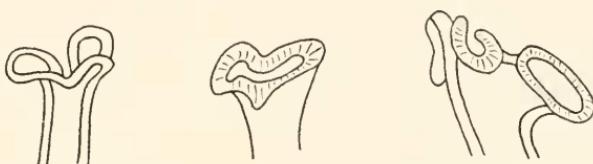


FIG. 2. Sucker-like organs of attachment. (Camera lucida.) \times ca. 475.

In one specimen which is 1.4 mm. long the first branching occurs at a distance of about .9 mm. from the blunt end, the second 1.2 mm., and the third 1.32 mm. In other specimens the trunk portion is often much shorter proportionately, rarely even shorter than the primary rami. The ramuli at the attached end are the shortest, the rami usually increasing in length towards the free end of the parasite. The dichotomy is regular in all specimens examined. The ramuli bear groups of irregularly-ovoid, sucker-like objects by means of which the parasite is attached to the host (Fig. 2).

Longitudinal and transverse striations are visible in the ectoplasm with the high powers of the microscope. The transparent fluid endoplasm of the trunk and primary rami is densely packed with ovoid paraglycogen granules. These granules are widely separated in the secondary rami and only very sparsely distributed in the ultimate, transparent branches.

The nucleus (Fig. 3) is a large, ovoid body sometimes visible to the unaided eye in cleared specimens as a minute spot. In large specimens it is .64-.86 mm. in length. The contents of the nucleus are perfectly transparent except for a single, eccentrically located, spherical body of light bluish appearance.

This endosome has either one large, or several smaller, transparent, vacuole-like areas. The nuclei of dead parasites are always found in the unbranched portion.

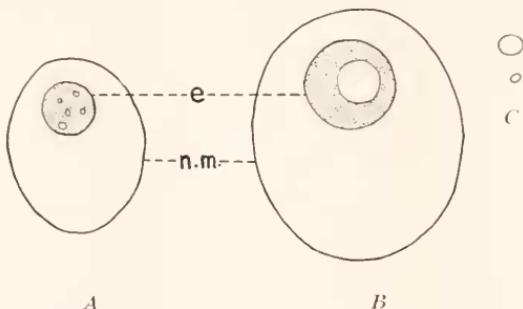


FIG. 3. *A.* Nucleus from trophozoite 1.3 mm. in length. (Camera lucida.) \times ca. 335. *e.*, endosome; *n.m.*, nuclear membrane. *B.* Nucleus from larger trophozoite. (Camera lucida.) \times ca. 350. *C.* Paraglycogen granules. (Camera lucida.) \times ca. 350.

Live attached parasites have not been studied but in living detached forms two series of movements are noticeable. The first series may be described as waves of peristaltic contraction passing along the trunk and rami of the first order. These peristaltic contractions produce a back and forth churning of the endoplasmic contents in the trunk, from the trunk into the primary rami, and back and forth in the rami. By these contractions the nucleus is squeezed to and fro from one end of the trunk to the other. In two of the living specimens examined the nucleus remained in the unbranched portion of the parasite during the whole period of observation. In the other animal the nucleus frequently passed into one or the other of the primary rami. In the primary ramus the nucleus was either rolled back and forth several times or at once passed back into the trunk. The nucleus moved with equal ease and frequency into either one of the primary rami but never passed into the secondary rami which were narrower than the nucleus. It should be noted that in this third animal the ramification began unusually near the blunt end so that the trunk portion was less than one third of the total length of the parasite.

The second series of movements may be called rotation movements and result in a spiral twisting of the primary rami and their branches back and forth on their own axes.

The parasites occur in the coelomic cavities of one genus of Burmese earthworms, *Eutyphaeus* and most commonly in *E. foveatus*. They are found in smaller numbers and more rarely in *E. spinulosus*, *rarus*, and *peguanus*. One hundred per cent. of the *E. foveatus* examined during a period extending over four years have been infected. In the majority of worms of the last named species, large numbers of parasites are found, masses containing 20-40 individuals being not uncommon. The largest groups of parasites occur in segment three, the majority of which are attached to the large nephridial masses of this segment. Other locations are: under the nerve cord in segment four, and on the septa or parietes of segments four to twenty. Those found posterior to segment nine are almost always less than one millimeter in length.

AIKINETOCYSTIS SINGULARIS, n. gen., n. sp.

Diagnosis.

Uninucleated protozoa parasitic in the coelomic cavity of certain earthworms of Burma; body cylindrical or columnar with a characteristic, regularly dichotomous branching at the attached end; fixation to the host by means of sucker-like bodies borne on the ultimate branches; nucleus with a single eccentrically placed endosome.

Additional Observations.

Pairs of animals are frequently found attached to each other near the rounded free ends. Among the larger sized forms such pairs are nearly as common as single animals, but do not occur among the smaller parasites. Groups of three to eight animals similarly adherent to each other are also found. Attempts to pull apart the attached animals have always resulted in breaking one or both of the animals near the place of attachment. However no evidence of organic connection between members of a pair or group has been found.

Monocystid-like spores of typical pseudo-navicella form in masses visible to the naked eye are sometimes present in segments three to five. In other specimens in which such masses are not visible similar spores can almost always be found by scraping the body wall of the segments just mentioned. The spores are of

two sizes: the larger .02-.023 mm. long, the smaller .007-.008 mm. long. The contents of the spores are coarsely granular. A single transparent vesicular body is present, centrally placed in the small spores, eccentrically placed in the large spores. As no other parasites with a cyst- or spore-forming habit are found in segments three to five and as the spores are practically always present with the trophozoites, it may be inferred, at least tentatively, that they are produced by the trophozoites with which they are always associated.

Numerous specimens of the host have been dissected in every month in which the worm can be obtained but only three cysts from as many worms have been found in proximity to the trophozoites. The cyst in each case was ovoid in shape and about .62 mm. long. A tough membrane enclosed a fluid in which floated two hemispherical bodies in contact with each other on a flattened surface, nearly filling the cavity of the cyst. After rupturing the membrane the gamonts were easily separated from each other. The single hemisphere retained its shape and opacity in clearing fluid. Rupturing the hemisphere by pressure on the cover-glass released granules similar in appearance to those found in the endoplasm of the trophozoite, but no nucleus or spores could be seen. Spore-containing sporocysts have not been found in the anterior segments but cysts about .75 mm. long and .6 mm. wide, densely packed with spores similar in size and appearance to those occurring in the anterior segments are sometimes present in the whitish masses filling the cœlomic cavities of the anal segments.

Worms of the genus *Eutyphaeus* occurring in Rangoon suddenly disappear at the end of the rainy season and are not to be found again until after the beginning of the next rainy season. The failure to find the sporocysts in spite of the constant presence of the spores may be due to a coincidence of the sporocyst formation with this winter hibernation period of the host.

SUMMARY.

A new protozoan parasite of the cœlomic cavities of certain tropical earthworms, with a remarkable branched structure of the trophozoite is described. Mention is made of associated spores and sporocysts possibly belonging to the trophozoites.

A CYTOLOGICAL STUDY OF SECRETORY PHENOMENA IN THE SILK GLAND OF
HYPHANTRIA CUNEA.

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INTRODUCTION.

The general anatomy and histology of the silk glands of lepidopterous larvæ have been carefully studied and described by numerous investigators beginning with the work of Helm ('76), but little purely cytological study of the cells with an aim toward giving an account of the mechanism of secretion was reported before the investigations of Maziarski ('11) and later of Nakahara ('17). Since that time, few papers have appeared based upon studies of the silk gland, with the exception of an account by Yamanouchi ('22) describing a morphological study of silk secretion.

In previous investigations of silk secretion, studies have been made only upon glands of caterpillars which spin a cocoon at a certain period in their life history. Such study is of value in observing glandular function and development during the progressive stages preparatory to and at the time of activity. In order to best study the actual process of secretion, the optimum material would naturally be found in a form which secretes actively over a comparatively long period of time.

The fall webworm, *Hyphantria cunea*, is ideally adapted for the study of active secretion, for the caterpillars live together in colonies, secreting the web continually throughout larval life in the process of securing food. This form, therefore, was selected for the present investigation and by the application of cytological methods, an attempt has been made to determine the cellular organization which is concerned with secretory phenomena in the silk gland.

Work upon this problem was for the most part carried on during 1925 and 1926, at Washington University, St. Louis,

under the direction and supervision of Prof. Caswell Grave. It is with great pleasure that I take this opportunity to express to Dr. Grave my sincere appreciation for his advice, criticisms, and valuable suggestions.

MATERIAL.

The spinning-glands of the larval *Hyphantria cunea*, like those of all lepidopteran larvae, consist of two long tubes, easily distinguishable by their glassy appearance, situated on either side of the nerve cord and below the digestive tract. Each tube is a cylindrical, folded body, averaging between 6 and 8 mm. in length, or slightly less than the entire length of the caterpillar which averages about 1 cm. In total mounts of a spinning-gland, three arbitrary divisions may be distinguished, characterized by differences in appearance, and, in section, by structure (Text-Fig. *D*); the posterior, or secreting portion lying between the eighth and eleventh segments and terminating blindly; the middle portion or reservoir, bending posteriorly to the ninth or tenth segment, then folding anteriorly to the fifth segment; the anterior, or conducting portion extending straight forward to the head where the two tubes converge and unite to open at the apex of a median cylindrical organ, the spinneret.

Each tube consists of a single layer of epithelial cells (Imms, '25, p. 407), varying in shape and size according to position in the tubule. The cells are arranged in two longitudinal rows around a central lumen. The nucleus of each cell is characteristically branched and very irregular. Externally, the gland is covered by a thin membrane, the tunica propria, and internally, the lumen is lined by the thicker tunica intima.

The cells of the posterior region are relatively large and irregular in form and contain a greatly branched nucleus. The inner cell wall is irregular in surface contour, due to numerous drops of secretion in passage between the cell and lumen. The tunica intima is not readily distinguishable (Text-Fig. *A, B*). The cells composing the middle region are greatly flattened with a consequent elongation of the nucleus, and possess a clear hyalin, inner border. The cavity of the lumen has increased in diameter and is filled by secreted material (Text-Fig. *C, D*).

The cells of the anterior conducting portion are reduced in size, being compressed but less elongated than cells of the reservoir. The nuclei tend to be rounder and less branched, and the intima can be definitely distinguished (Text-Fig. E, F).

The tracheæ that supply the posterior and middle regions penetrate through the tunica propria into the substance of the cell. It is significant that no intracellular tracheæ are present in the anterior conducting portion of the silk glands.

COLOR REACTIONS OF SILK GLAND CELLS WITH VARIOUS STAINS AND FIXATIVES.

Fixative and Stain.	Chro-matin.	Nuclear Bodies.	Nucleo-lloid Bodies.	Mito-chondria.
<i>Benda:</i>				
Delafield's Hæm., Acid Fuchsin..	Blue	Black	Black	
Ehrlich's Hæm., Acid Fuchsin....	Blue	Blue	Blue	
Ehrlich-Biondi.....	Pink	Pink	Orange	
Iron Hæm., Erythrosin.....	Black	Black	Black	Black
<i>Bouin:</i>				
Delafield's Hæm., Acid Fuchsin..	Blue	Blue	Blue	
Ehrlich's Hæm., Acid Fuchsin....	Blue	Blue	Black	
Iron Hæm., Acid Fuchsin.....	Pink	Black	Black	
<i>Champy:</i>				
Altmann, Acid Fuchsin, Methyl gr.....	Green	Red	Red	Red
Delafield's Hæm., Acid Fuchsin..	Blue	Black	Black	
Ehrlich's Hæm., Acid Fuchsin....	Blue	Blue	Blue	
Ehrlich-Biondi.....	Pink	Red	Orange	
Iron Hæm., Acid Fuchsin.....	Black	Black	Black	Black
<i>Gatenby:</i>				
Delafield's Hæm., Acid Fuchsin..	Black	Black	Black	
Iron Hæm., Acid Fuchsin.....	Black	Black	Black	Black
<i>Mann-Kopsch:</i>				
Unstained.....	Yellow	Yellow	Yellow	
Altmann, Acid Fuchsin, Methyl gr.....	Reddish	Reddish	Brown	
<i>Regaud:</i>				
Altmann, Acid Fuchsin, Methyl gr.....	Green	Red	Green	Red
Iron Hæm., Erythrosin.....	Pink	Black		Black

Larval *H. cunea* furnished the entire supply of material with the exception of a few glands from *Apatella americana* and *Diacrisia virginica* which were preserved in Bouin and DaFano preparations for comparison. The age of the webworms could not be determined as they had been actively secreting for some time previous to collection as evidenced by the size of the webs. An abundant supply of material was secured from bayberry

COLOR REACTIONS OF SUNK GLAND CELLS WITH VARIOUS STAINS AND FIXATIVES.

Fixative and Stain.	Cytol. Bodies.	Secretion.		Intima.	Mucoid Sub.	Cytopl.
		Outer.	Inner.			
<i>Benda:</i>						
Delafield's Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....	Pink	Light brown	Olive	Pink	Pink	Pink
Ehrlich's Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....	Pink	Olive	Olive	Pink	Pink	Pink
Ehrlich-Biondi.....	Black	Blue-gray	Black	Pink	Pink	Green
Iron Haem., Erythrosin.....						Pink
<i>Bain:</i>						
Delafield's Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....	Pink	Pink	Pink	Pink	Pink	Pink
Ehrlich's Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....	Pink	Dark pink	Dark pink	Pink	Pink	Pink
Iron Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....	Black	Black	Black	Black	Black	Black
<i>Champy:</i>						
Altmann, A. Fuch., Methyl green	Red	Dark red	Light red	Green	Green	Green
Delafield's Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....		Pink	Brown	Pink	Pink	Pink
Ehrlich's Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....		Pink	Olive	Pink	Pink	Pink
Ehrlich-Biondi.....		Red-orange	Green-gray	Green	Green	Green
Iron Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....	Black	Black	Black	Pink	Pink	Pink
<i>Gatenby:</i>						
Delafield's Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....		Dark brown	Light brown	Pink	Pink	Pink
Iron Haem., Acid Fuchsin.....	Black	Black	Black	Pink	Pink	Pink
<i>Mann-Kopisch:</i>						
Unstained.....						
Ehrlich, A. Fuch., Methyl green.....		Olive	Olive	Brown	Yellow	Yellow
Altmann, A. Fuch., Methyl green.....		Red	Red	Green	Green	Green
Iron Haem., Erythrosin.....	Black	Black	Black	Black	Black	Pink

bushes on Nonamesett Island, Mass., between August 13 and 16, and brought into the laboratory at Woods Hole where the animals were kept supplied with food and moisture until killed.

METHODS.

The caterpillars were killed by piercing the head with a pin after which they were immediately fastened in a paraffined dish containing Locke's solution, opened by a dorsal incision, and the glands removed directly with glass needles and placed in fixing fluids. Several fixing solutions were used, namely; Bouin's, Zenker's, Gilson's, for general structure, Benda's, Gatenby's modified "Flemmings" for cell inclusions, Champy's method for preserving and differentiating Golgi bodies and mitochondria, and Regaud for mitochondria.

Transverse and longitudinal sections, 4 micra in thickness, were made of the glands and stained by various methods. The results of different combinations of fixatives and stains may be seen from the chart.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. *The Nucleus.*

(a) *Historical.*—The nucleus of larval spinning-gland cells has been found to be characteristically large and greatly branched; the branches extending toward all sides of the cell. This peculiarity of shape early attracted investigators and led them to study the nucleus and its contents in an effort to find some possible relation between its unusual form and the active secretion of silk; but it was not until Korschelt in 1896 published the results of his observations upon living and fixed material that a detailed account of the nuclear content of spinning-gland cells appeared in the literature. From the results obtained through use of a modification of the Ehrlich-Biondi stain, Korschelt concluded that the larger bodies or macrosomes found in the nucleus correspond to the chromatin, and the smaller bodies, or microsomes to nucleoli. Meves ('97) used other staining reagents and came to opposite conclusions. He identified the macrosomes with the nucleoli and the microsomes with chromatin. More recent investigations have seemed to support

the conclusions of Meves (Marshall and Vorhies, '06; Vorhies, '08; Maziarski, '11; Nakahara, '17).

(b) *Observations.*—Within the nuclear membrane, which can usually be distinguished with little difficulty in the spinning-gland cells of *H. cunea*, bodies of two sizes are always present (except in the anterior conducting region) and with great regularity and frequency a larger, third body is also found (Fig. 5). The smallest bodies are by far the most abundant and tend to fill the entire nucleus. With certain fixatives, Bouin, Zenker, a reticulum can be distinguished, upon which are arranged these smallest bodies. This is not the case, however, after fixation in Regaud, Champy, Benda, or Gatenby, for in the middle and posterior regions of the gland the bodies always appear to be free in the nucleus, forming a compact mass of small granules, and take a basic stain. (See chart.) These bodies have been considered as chromatin. In the anterior region of the gland, these bodies are consistently present although considerably more scattered.

The second group of bodies present in the nucleus exhibits considerable variability both of size and distribution. These are the macrosomes or nucleoli of previous workers, but in this paper, they will be referred to as "nuclear bodies." It is only rarely that these nuclear bodies are found in the nuclei of the conducting cells, and when they chance to be present, are considerably smaller than similar bodies in the posterior or middle regions. No general rule can be given for the shape or dimensions of these nuclear bodies as they tend to vary greatly. Their usual shape is spherical or ellipsoid, and this is typical of their form in the middle region, but toward the posterior end of the gland where there are evidences of active secretion indicated by droplets in the lumen and on the edge of the lumen, these bodies are often elongated and irregular in shape. In size, there is variation in length between 0.5 micron and 2 micra and occasionally a few are larger. Even within the same nucleus, such variation in size is present. The bodies have no special arrangement in the nucleus but tend to be dispersed throughout the area, very often approaching the nuclear membrane. They have even been seen penetrating the nuclear wall into the cyto-

plasm. Critical observation with high magnification definitely showed nuclear bodies partly within the nucleus and partly in the cytoplasm (Fig. 4). The passage of nuclear bodies into the cytoplasm is a fact that has been described with great care by Maziarski ('11), Nakahara ('17), and earlier workers, as of regular occurrence in the spinning-gland cell; by Saguchi ('20) as occurring in nuclear function of the pancreas cell; and by Ludford ('25) in tissue cultures of fibroblasts of the rats' kidney.

The staining reaction of these nuclear bodies is of interest because of the fact that although it is more or less variable, yet it tends to show greater affinity for acid stains. (See Chart.) It has been upon reactions to stains that all the conclusions in regard to the relation between nucleus and secretion have been made, since it has been regularly found that the nuclear bodies (nucleoli) and apparently related bodies in the cytoplasm exhibit the same staining reactions.

The third class of nuclear bodies found in *H. cunea* has not been described in the literature so far as it has been possible to determine. Because of the similarity between these bodies and the true nucleoli, they will be referred to throughout this paper as "nucleoloid bodies." Meves ('97) mentions the fact that nucleoli may contain several small vacuoles, but in the figures of nucleoli in which he shows this structure, they are no larger than numerous other bodies in the nucleus. Korschelt ('97) in replying to the criticism of Meves, attempts to explain the presence of vacuoles by the hypothesis that the nucleoli or micro-somes are derived from the chromatic substance by some transformation evidenced, no doubt, by these vacuoles. Marshall and Vorhies ('06) definitely state that no plasmosome or special structure is formed in the nucleus during secretion in spinning-gland cells of *Platypylax*, but mention the fact that sometimes the nucleoli may contain vacuoles but no further significance is attached to the observation; nor did Nakahara ('17) consider as important the presence of vacuoles in nucleoli. In the nuclei of *H. cunea*, vacuolated bodies are found to be sufficiently definite to attract especial attention. After carefully measuring a large number of such bodies in all parts of the silk gland, it was found that the average diameter is about 4 micra regardless

of position in the gland. Several measured 3 micra in diameter and a very few in the more actively secreting region are as large as 5 micra or 6 micra, while in the anterior region, these bodies average about 2 micra in diameter. This size relation is constant regardless of the fixation used.

Each nucleoloid body contains two or more vacuoles or clear spaces which either do not stain or, if so, only faintly. In a section of a nucleus, usually only one of these bodies is present, rarely two (Figs. 3, 5, 6), and the frequency with which they occur in serial transverse sections 4 micra in thickness leads to the conclusion that not more than two are usually present in a nucleus. This point has been very difficult to determine accurately on account of the uncertainty in deciding where one nucleus ends and the next begins. From longitudinal sections, the evidence was more definitely in support of this conclusion. These nucleoloid bodies are either centrally or just eccentrically placed, and are never found in close approximation to the nuclear wall. Their usual shape is spherical, thus distinguishing nucleoloid bodies from nuclear bodies which tend to vary in shape. From careful study, it has appeared that the presence of nucleoloid bodies is usually associated with an increase in the number of nuclear bodies (macrosomes) either in the same section or the next in series. In the immediate vicinity of the nucleoloid body, the nuclear bodies are smaller, increasing in size toward the periphery of the nucleus (Figs. 3, 5, 6). The periphery of the nucleoloid bodies is not always regular, for often protrusions apparently in the process of pinching off may be seen (Fig. 5).

That the vacuolated nucleolus may give rise to nuclear bodies is not without precedent in observations. Saguchi ('20) in the pancreas cell, describes a very similar process which gives rise to nucleolar corpuscles: p. 355: "As regards the genesis of the nucleolar corpuscles, I am fully convinced that they are derived from the main or side nucleoli." Montgomery ('99) concludes that the nucleolus may act as a nuclear organ either of excretion or storage and that when it has enlarged to a certain extent, it constricts pieces from itself.

The nucleoloid bodies usually react more specifically to basic

stains (see chart), but occasionally with Altmann's anilin acid fuchsin, methyl green after fixation by the Regaud method, bodies can be found staining deeply green at the periphery and pink in the center.

(c) *Critical*.—From observations upon silk gland cells of *H. cunea*, it would seem that the bodies which migrate from the nucleus into the cytoplasm are not nucleoli, but are rather products of nuclear activity. That this is placing too great a burden upon a single small organ of the nucleus may be argued, but it need not necessarily follow that all the products of secretion are derived from the nucleoloid bodies, but rather that the latter contribute bodies which enlarge in the nucleus, pass out into the cytoplasm where they undergo further modification and later become discharged into the lumen. In order to verify the concluding part of this statement, a general survey of the cytoplasm and its contents is necessary.

2. *The Cytoplasm.*

(a) *Cytoplasm*.—The cytoplasmic structure of the silk gland cell as of any cell, is difficult to describe in concrete terms for it is more or less affected by fixation and the exact or true nature is hard to determine. After fixation with the Champy, Gatenby, Benda, or Regaud methods, the cytoplasm is homogeneous and granular, but after Bouin and Mann-Kopsch fixation, a definitely striated appearance may be distinguished, the striae extending from the lumen toward the periphery. No evidence of fibrils have been found in any case. Yamanouchi ('22) definitely describes fibrillæ in the protoplasm between which are situated granules, especially toward the lumen. These, he explains, are cross sections of fibrillæ and that the entire structure is composed of minute fibrillæ arranged in rows. The usual staining reaction is acidophilic. (See chart.)

(b) *Granules*.—In the posterior region of the gland, throughout the cytoplasm, there appear spherical bodies either enclosed in vacuoles or apparently free in the protoplasm (Fig. 1). Maziarski ('11), Nakahara ('17), and others, noted this condition and from the fact that the bodies are often found in close proximity to the nucleus and exhibit the same staining reactions

as the nuclear bodies drew the conclusion that the cytoplasmic granules are derived from the nuclear bodies (nucleoli) by migration of the latter. Tanaka ('11) believes the fibroin, or silk core, to be a product of the gland cell substance, visible only when the secretion has accumulated to give rise to fine fibroin droplets which unite to form larger droplets. Yamanouchi ('22) likewise believes that secretion is produced in the cell.

Whether or not these cytoplasmic bodies are produced in the cell or in the nucleus, it seems to be generally concluded that they are directly connected with the products of secretion.

From observation of cytoplasmic granules in the cells of *H. cunea*, it was found that they average between 1 micron and 2 micra in diameter, or approximate the size of the nuclear bodies. The cytoplasmic granules tend to increase in size as they approach the lumen and finally, the droplets of secretion when passed into the cavity coalesce and become of considerable size (Fig. 16). Evidence of active secretion is correlated with an abundance of cytoplasmic bodies present in the cell, but not, as might be expected, with a decrease in the number of nuclear bodies present. It seems, therefore, that if the nucleus does play an active part in the formation of secretion that there is always an excess of nuclear bodies stored in the branched nucleus, and while the drain upon one part may be great, the reserve from another part of the nucleus may supply the demand.

The cytoplasmic bodies are found in all parts of the cell, but usually most abundantly between portions of a nucleus or between the nucleus and the lumen (Fig. 1). These bodies usually react to acid stains, but are generally stained black with iron haematoxylin. (See chart.)

That no cytoplasmic bodies are present in the middle section is difficult to determine with absolute certainty. If the nucleus with its nucleoloid bodies and nuclear bodies is responsible for secretion, surely secretion should occur in this region, for both types of bodies are present in the nuclei. Material fixed by the Gatenby method and stained with iron haematoxylin and acid fuchsin furnished the only indication that cytoplasmic bodies may be present in the reservoir region. The bodies took a light pink stain very similar to that of the clear, structureless substance

surrounding the silk core. These bodies were so indistinct that they may have been the result of poor technique.

Yamanouchi ('22) finds evidence that sericin, or the outer layer of the silk core, is secreted in the posterior portion of the middle region. Blanc ('89) considers that mucous is secreted in the anterior portion of the reservoir in the form of numerous granules, but this point has received little support in subsequent literature.

(c) *Mitochondria*.—Throughout the whole of the literature dealing with the silk glands of various lepidopteran larvæ, no reference has been found which even suggests that the workers suspected the presence of mitochondria in the cells. This may be due to the fact that no investigator has employed specific mitochondrial fixatives.

Maziarski ('11) describes certain bodies that are found occasionally in the protoplasm as having the form of short "bâtonnets," and staining deeply. These have a parallel arrangement along the shorter axis of the cell and unite with one another by fine protoplasmic fibrils. The substance of these bâtonnets is refractile and stains with acid stains. Gilson noticed these bodies and thought they were related to functional processes of the protoplasm in that they have the appearance of little tubules filled with secretory substance. Maziarski did not find these bodies consistently present in all of his material.

After fixation with Regaud, and staining with Altmann's anilin acid fuchsin, methyl green, clear-cut evidence of the existence of mitochondria in the cells of *H. cunea* has been obtained.

1. *Posterior Region*.—The mitochondria in the posterior region are very numerous, especially between portions of a nucleus and toward the lumen. In whatever part of the cell the mitochondria may appear, they always show a characteristic orientation with their longitudinal axis toward the lumen. There is no evidence that these bodies have any direct relation to the nucleus for they do not radiate from it or tend to cluster around it (Figs. 1, 2).

Their usual shape is filamentous, rod-shaped or granular. Where active secretion is taking place, long filaments are present,

averaging between 3 and 5 micra in length, and about 0.5 micron in diameter. In the more anterior portions of the gland, the mitochondria are found to be shorter, but equally numerous. Mitochondria do not appear to have any direct relation to the cytoplasmic bodies, but the latter are found situated among the mitochondrial filaments.

Material stained with iron haematoxylin after fixation in either the Champy or Gatenby method exhibits the presence of structures similar in size, shape and distribution to those observed with Regaud fixation (Figs. 5, 6).

2. *Middle Region*.—In the middle region, mitochondria are always present but their shape is somewhat different from that of the mitochondria in the posterior region. A gradual transition may be seen from the long filaments in the secreting region to the shorter rods in the anterior portion of this region (Fig. 7) and finally, in the true reservoir, the mitochondria become shortened to granules or spherules. The latter have the properties of mitochondria but are somewhat larger in diameter than the mitochondrial granules. It is not probable that the larger spherules represent secretion since in appearance, they more nearly resemble mitochondria than secretion bodies.

The distribution of mitochondria is fairly disperse throughout all parts of the cell, but with a tendency to be more abundant toward the lumen. No definite orientation can be distinguished in the longer rods (Fig. 12).

3. *Anterior Region*.—Bodies taking a stain characteristic of mitochondria are present in the anterior region, but these are always granular and arranged with little definite order (Figs. 8, 9).

4. *Critical*.—From the preceding observations, it is seen that mitochondria are present in the cytoplasm throughout the entire extent of the tubule. Their shape and to a less extent their number varies, however, in the three arbitrary divisions of the gland. Cowdry ('24, p. 318) suggests that mitochondria may serve to some extent as indicators of secretory polarity. In the case of silk secretion, it seems that this is truly the conclusion to be drawn. Secretion can be traced from the cell into the lumen, and mitochondria appear to be streaming toward the

lumen in a very definite way. There is no evidence that mitochondria actively produce secretion but only the indication that they may participate in the process. That mitochondria are present in the reservoir and conducting regions but that here they do not show polarity seems to indicate that mitochondria may be present to perform other functions than that of participating in secretory activity. Activity is occurring in both the middle and anterior regions, although not secretory activity. The middle portion appears to be a storage place for secretion where possible modifications of the secreted material may take place, for example, a condensation and compression. The secreted material then passes through the anterior conducting portion. Tanaka ('11) is the only investigator who has suggested any possibility of the existence of secretory function in the anterior region, and this probably only in the embryonic stages. The usual interpretation is that this region serves as a duct for the passage of secretion. In this case, the presence of mitochondria would seem to indicate that some activity exists within the cell, possibly of general metabolic nature.

(d) *Golgi Bodies*.—In preparations of glands fixed by the Mann-Kopsch, and by the Champy method, no structures have been found which could be interpreted as true Golgi bodies. In silk gland cells of *H. cunea* impregnated with osmic acid, numerous fine dark granules appear (Fig. 11), that are distributed very abundantly along the periphery of the cell-body and scattered more generally toward the lumen. These fine granules are present in all regions of the gland and always characteristically more abundant toward the periphery of the cell. In the extreme posterior tip of the gland, the granules appear grouped as a dense border which gradually becomes more disperse toward the lumen. In cells of the secreting region, groups of large, black bodies, spherical in shape and usually situated toward or near the lumen or the periphery are common and may be followed through several sections of a series.

Miss Murray ('26) describes a condition in the follicle cells of the cricket which seems quite similar and her figures compare closely with the condition found in the spinning-gland cell. With regard to her observations, she states (p. 223) that "In

the proximal region of some of these cells (follicle cells) there has been seen a nebulous structure composed of very finely divided black particles, which might be considered to indicate an excessive deposition of fat in the tissue. This fine emulsion might conceivably be coarsened at the boundary of the cell and coalesce into fatty globules."

In silk gland cells of *A. americana* and *D. virginica* which were fixed with DaFano's modification of the Cajal method, the same condition was found, but in these cases, there is a greater tendency toward an arrangement of the granules in rows, thus presenting the appearance of striations extending from the lumen toward the periphery, and likewise a greater grouping of granules around the edge of the cell toward the lumen. These bodies tend to concentrate along all sections of tracheæ, thus outlining the course of tracheids very definitely. In these two species, it must be remembered, active secretion of silk only visibly appears at the time of forming the cocoon.

It seems possible that these fine spherical granules may represent by products of cellular activity that are being eliminated. Their condensation along the tracheids and the proximal border of the cell may indicate that such may be the case. In the two species in which the process of secretion is only in the preparatory stage, an accumulation of waste products may be imagined to be occurring in the cell.

3. *The Membranes.*

(a) *Historical.*—Before the work of Helm ('76), the existence of a tunica propria, or external membrane, and a tunica intima, or internal membrane was known and had been described, but little was known concerning their structure or function. The tunica propria was quickly dismissed by Helm and those following him as a structureless membrane fitting very closely to the basal membrane throughout the entire extent of the gland that resists to a considerable degree the penetration of fixing fluids. But the tunica intima could not be so easily defined. Helm describes its structure in the anterior region as containing fine radial tubes which he refers to as "Porencanale." The entire intima, according to his observations, represents a cuticular

layer which is a modified secretion of the outer body wall and is, in consequence, shed at each moult. The fine canaliculi are arranged perpendicular to the surface and are interpreted to serve as conduction paths through the cuticular intima for the liquid secreted by the cells to the lumen. Blanc ('89) working on the silk gland cells of *Bombyx mori* concluded that the intima was a chitinous structure composed of very fine parallel threads encircling the lumen at intervals of from 3-4 micra and showing occasional anastomosis. Gilson ('94) confirmed the observations of Blanc. Maziarski ('11) describing the intima, pictures the structure as a thin membrane composed of a great number of filaments passing in spiral lines around the lumen of the canal and joined by fine transverse fibrillæ, thus producing the appearance of a network of threads. These filaments are described as staining deeply with iron haematoxylin and having the appearance of rigid fibrils located in the protoplasm of the cell nearest the lumen, and were thought to resemble organs of support but not to serve as passageways for substances elaborated in the cells.

Tanaka ('11) describes the intima as a striated, filamentous-appearing structure of chitinous nature, thickest in the anterior division and thin in the middle region. The filamentous striations appear to have a parallel arrangement except toward the posterior region where anastomosis may occur. This chitinous substance which gives rise to the intima is thought by Tanaka to be secreted in the anterior region and never to undergo ecdysis, but rather is added to in thickness with age. This is (p. 16), he concludes, "a fact which goes a long way in proving the secretion of this chitinous substance throughout the whole larval life."

Yamanouchi ('22) found the intima to be a glassy-like cuticular layer most conspicuously present in the anterior region where it has a thickness twice that in the other parts of the gland. This structure appears to be hyalin in nature, reacting to stains very similarly to sericin but more intensely in the anterior portion of the middle region, this structure is not homogeneous but gives the appearance of containing concentric bands whereby it is possible to distinguish two or three layers of intima. This arrangement in layers disappears anteriorly.

(b) *Observation.*—In the gland of *H. cunea* after fixation by the Regaud method, the presence of a clear, hyalin layer of material between lumen and cell-wall is found to be quite generally present in both the middle and anterior regions. (Figs. 7, 8, 9, 12.) This layer is always found to be very closely connected with the cell-wall, and yet to be perfectly distinct from the protoplasm. Oftentimes large vacuoles may be seen in the structure (Fig. 7), but these are always on the edge toward the cell and may be explained as the result of shrinkage at the time of fixation. This vacuolated condition occurs with greater frequency in the posterior portion of the middle region where the layer is thicker and less regular in form.

Posteriorly, in the secreting region, no indication of an intima is found except for the presence of a thin membrane along the inner edge of the cells. The cells usually have an irregular surface on the side toward the lumen, the protoplasm seeming to be in very close connection with the cavity (Fig. 2), but after fixation with Champy, Gatenby, or Benda preparations, this membrane is quite definite (Fig. 1).

Toward the more anterior portion of the middle region, fibrillæ may be seen extending through the clear hyalin substance and around the lumen. In longitudinal sections through the edge of the lumen, these structures appear to extend from the edge of the cell on one side of the lumen to the cell on the other side (Fig. 10), and to take their origin along the margin of the protoplasm. These fibrillæ stain darkly with iron haematoxylin and dark red with Altmann's acid fuchsin after fixation by the Champy method. In general, the fibrillæ tend to be arranged in parallel series and some evidence has been found of slight anastomosis between fibrillæ in the more posterior region. After the tube has become narrowed to form the conducting portion, fibrillæ disappear leaving the intima clear and structureless.

(c) *Critical.*—The fact that the intima is present in the anterior and middle portions of the gland as a thickened layer seems to indicate that this structure is not connected with active secretion but must serve some function related to conduction of secreted products to the outside. A copious supply of secretion is being poured continually into the reservoir from the posterior

region. To strengthen the cell against the resulting pressure and to prevent it from distortion, a thin layer of hyalin material might be conceived to serve as a support. At the point in the tube where it begins to narrow anteriorly, the pressure becomes greater and more support is necessary. That fibrillæ should appear in the transition region between the middle and anterior regions, is, therefore, to be expected. It is quite possible, moreover, that these fibrillæ may be more than merely supporting structures. Their shape and position around the lumen seems to indicate that they may have a contractile function, serving, perhaps, as a simple musculature in pushing the products of secretion into the long conducting tube. It is evident that some regulatory mechanism is necessary to prevent the small tube from becoming clogged by the ever accumulating secretion, and likewise, to regulate the amount of material passing through in order to produce a silk thread of uniform diameter.

4. *The Secretion.*

(a) *Historical.*—The morphological appearance of the secreted material has received considerably more attention throughout the literature than the mechanism of the secretion process, and yet little is definitely known about the real nature of the secreted substance. Staining reactions have been used almost exclusively as criteria upon which to base conclusions. Little detailed work has been done upon the actual chemical composition of the silk fiber further than a general analysis of the chemical components, the result of which has been to show that the fiber is made up of two slightly different substances; an outer, acidophilic layer of *sericin*, and a central core of basophilic *fibroin*. The former is quite similar in composition to the latter except that, according to Blanc ('89), it contains more oxygen, dissolves more readily in alkaline solutions and is more granular in appearance.

Tanaka ('11, p. 18-20) has reviewed very completely the results of previous workers and has arranged their views concerning the origin of fibroin and sericin into four principal groups. He then attempts to show that these theories have failed to satisfy all the conditions and proceeds to modify and combine parts of each theory into one more in accord with

his own conclusions which he states as follows: "The fibroin is produced by virtue of the physiological function of the gland cells, without reference to any part of the gland tube; the sericin is, in its formation from fibroin, quite indifferent from the physiological function of the cells; on the contrary this transformation goes on merely physico-chemically."

Maziarski ('11) in his enthusiasm for the nuclear origin of secretory products, states that the nucleoli which leave the nucleus become the fibroin and that chromatin, likewise, may be extruded into the protoplasm, there to undergo quite extended changes and finally pass out into the lumen as the sericin or gummy covering of the silk thread. This idea was not entirely new, for Vorhies ('08) had suggested that chromatin material may have a secretory function in addition to serving as the "bearer of heredity."

Nakahara ('11) recognizes only the formation of silk from transformed nucleoli, but Yamanouchi ('22) describes the production of sericin and fibroin in great detail and concludes that fibroin secretion takes place only in the posterior region, but that sericin secretion occurs in the posterior and middle parts of the middle region. The two kinds of secretion appear alternately and, due to the fact that each kind tends to remain separate, two layers are formed, distinguishable by their different staining reactions.

Blanc ('89) has described a third product of secretion, called by him "*mucoidine*," which envelops the silk fiber and stains more intensely with methyl green than either the fibroin or sericin. This substance, he thought, is formed in the anterior portion of the reservoir and may serve the function of a lubricant, thus facilitating the passage of the silk.

(b) *Observations*.—From a comparative study of silk gland cells prepared in different fixatives, it is evident that there exist in the lumen, substances which show different types of reactions to stains. After Regaud fixation, the silk thread appears to be perfectly homogeneous throughout its entire extent except in the anterior region of the gland where a slightly darker band may be distinguished around the thread. (Fig. 9.) The secretion found in the posterior and middle portions takes a reddish-blue stain

with Altmann's acid fuchsin, methyl green, and in the anterior portion, is decidedly green. The intima takes a bright red stain and appears to be a homogeneous, hyalin substance.

The condition of the secretion product after fixation with Champy, Benda, or Gatenby solutions is considerably different and leads to doubt concerning the identity of the various structures present in the lumen. With iron haematoxylin and acid fuchsin, the core of secretion is stained black. In the middle region, the secretion does not fill the lumen as is the case after fixation with Regaud, but between the secretion and the intima, now distinguished as a thin black membrane at the cell border, there is present a compact mass of finely granular substance that takes the acid stain. This substance, however, is stained light green in material fixed by the Champy, and stained by the Altmann method. Usually, the material appears to be homogeneous, but after Benda, and sometimes after Champy fixation, the substance is arranged in thread-like strands that extend from the cell-wall toward the secretion. That this band of substance is separate from the core of secretion is quite evident, for the secretion may be found entirely removed from the substance and be free in the lumen. The substance is never free from the edge of the gland cell. It would seem that either the amount of secretion present is determined by the width of this band which fills the remainder of the lumen or that the size of the band of substance is dependent upon the amount of secretion present, since after fixation, little or no shrinkage apparently occurs and the core of silk is contained in the center of the lumen closely surrounded by a band of this substance. The former hypothesis seems more probable since some regulatory mechanism for producing a thread of uniformly decreasing dimensions must be present.

Material fixed by the Champy, and stained with the Altmann method affords evidence of the presence of two substances in the thread. Secreted substance in the posterior portion of the gland stains light pink on the periphery while the center is either dark pink or green. This condition is not seen as sections are selected in the more anterior part of the gland. After fixation of the gland in Bouin, the silk thread exhibits two

distinct staining reactions. The core stains a clear pink and the periphery forms a black cortex around this core. This reaction of the secreted substance is consistent throughout the tube.

In silk glands of *D. virginica* fixed in Bouin and stained in iron haematoxylin and acid fuchsin, the silk thread has a central core of clear pink substance surrounded by a black peripheral cortex. A wide region filled with a reticulum or meshwork of fine pink granules surrounds the thread. Bordering this region and extending to the inner cell-wall, a wide compact band of fine granular substance arranged in concentric rings occurs. Throughout this band, numerous large drops of black substance appear which probably represent secretion material. By comparison of the condition just described, with that found in *H. cunea*, and also with conditions described by Yamanouchi, it appears that some difference exists between the type of gland which secretes continuously and that which secretes at definite periods only. The presence of two diverse staining reactions in the thread seems to indicate that two substances are consistently coexistent in the two different types of silk gland cell, but the exact relationship between these two substances has not been determined with certainty.

(c) *Critical.*—The question as to the identity of the substances within the lumen has presented a problem which cannot be definitely settled without further study both of preserved material from a variety of caterpillars and also of living material. Observation of the material at hand seems to show that in the posterior portion of the gland, the secreted substance is usually homogeneous, and this is likewise true in the middle region. But some modification of the secreted substance takes place in the anterior conducting region which gives the silk thread the appearance of being composed of two substances.

It is evident that even in forms which secrete silk during the entire larval life, the process is not a continuous one, for often within the lumen of the silk gland, the end of one thread can be seen and, close upon the posterior part of this thread, but separated from it by the substance filling the lumen, the end of another discrete cylinder of secretion begins (Fig. 7).

The substance which fills all available space in the lumen not occupied by silk secretion, may well be similar in its properties to mucus, lubricating the tube for the passage of the silk fiber. No origin for this substance has been found. It does not appear to be secreted by the cells of the gland, nor does it seem to be a dislodged part of the bodies of the cells.

DISCUSSION.

1. *Relation of the Nucleus to Secretion.*

The nucleus and cytoplasm of the cells of the silk gland are closely associated in the production of the silk secretion. By many investigators, the nucleus has been considered the center of secretory activity in that the nucleoli migrate from the nucleus into the cytoplasm and there undergo modification. Study of the silk gland cells of *II. cunea* has given further indication of nuclear participation in silk production through the presence of nucleoloid bodies. These nucleoloid bodies do not themselves pass into the cytoplasm but appear to constrict pieces from their periphery that increase in size within the nucleus, finally passing through the nuclear wall into the cytoplasm where further modification of their substance occurs.

2. *Relation of Mitochondria to Secretion.*

Mitochondria having a characteristic arrangement in the cytoplasm of the secreting region are present in great numbers. It is quite possible that they take some part during the transitory stage when the secretion droplets are present in the cytoplasm, in modifying the material and transmitting it to the lumen. Mitochondria may act as catalysts, as suggested by Emberger ('25) or they may take a more direct part in secretion, but their presence and orientation toward the lumen seem to indicate that they are not passive cytoplasmic inclusions. Mitochondria are present throughout the extent of the gland but in the middle and anterior portions, they are shorter than in the secretory portion and show little definite orientation. In these portions, they may aid in the process of conduction and in general metabolic activity.

3. The Nature of the Secretion.

The column of silk secretion is apparently composed of two slightly different substances as evidenced by diverse staining reactions, but further study is necessary before the exact origin and nature of each is determined.

Since in the posterior region, the silk thread appears to be a homogeneous cylinder when preserved in several different fixatives, it would seem that there is but one kind of substance secreted and that this substance undergoes partial modification, possibly oxidation, during its progress down the tube.

A substance similar to mucous appears in the lumen as an envelop surrounding the silk column, but no account of its origin can be given. In life, it is evidently a fluid substance because it is found to be present wherever a break in the continuity of the fiber occurs. The distinction between this substance that is finely granular in appearance after certain fixations and the clear hyalin substance present in the same relative position, following fixation in Regaud's solution, cannot be determined. The latter substance has been considered as composing the intima but the former cannot be so accounted for.

SUMMARY.

1. In the silk gland of *Hyphantria cunea*, three regions are distinguishable; a posterior, or secreting region; a middle region, or reservoir; and an anterior, or conducting region.
2. The nuclei of silk gland cells are greatly branched in the posterior region, but tend to be more flattened and less branched in the more anterior regions.
3. Three types of bodies are found to be present in each nucleus; the small basophilic granules, or chromatin; the intermediate acidophilic bodies generally termed nucleoli, but here called nuclear bodies; the relatively large, spherical body containing vacuoles and corresponding to a true nucleolus, hence called a "nucleoloid body."

4. The nucleoloid bodies appear to give rise to the nuclear bodies which pass out of the nucleus into the cytoplasm.

5. Cytoplasmic granules exhibit the same staining reactions as nuclear bodies and are approximately the same in size when they occur in the region of the nucleus.

6. Mitochondria are present in all parts of the gland, but only in the posterior region do they show definite orientation.

7. Two membranes are present along the course of the gland, and external tunica propria, and an internal tunica intima.

8. Two substances regularly appear to constitute the silk thread in the anterior region. This condition is found to continue more posteriorly after fixation with the Champy, Gatenby, Benda, and Bouin methods.

9. A substance similar to mucous surrounds the silk thread in the middle region but does not extend into the anterior portion. The origin of this substance has not been determined.

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EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

PLATE I.

FIG. 1. Diagrammatic outline of silk gland of *H. cunea*. Anterior, middle, and posterior regions of gland numbered 1, 2, and 3 respectively. Letters correspond to sections taken at these levels.

FIGS. A-F. Camera lucida outlines of sections from the three regions of a tubule fixed by the Regaud method. Cross sections cut 4 micra in thickness; magnification, oc. 10 X, obj. 4 mm.

Note: Stippling represents cytoplasm; solid lines represent secretion; broken lines represent intima.

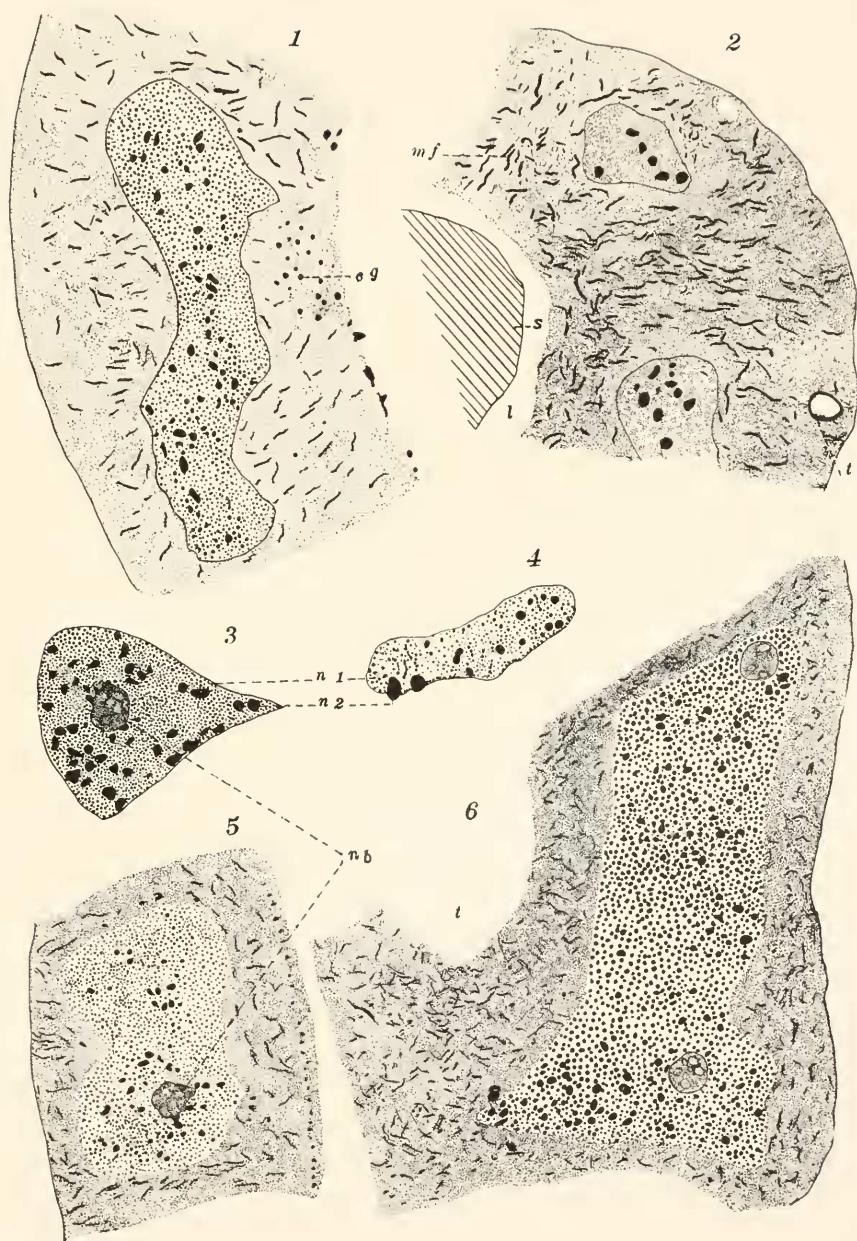


PLATE II.

All figures made from sections cut 4 micra in thickness, and drawn with camera lucida, magnification, oc. 12.5 X, obj. 1.8 mm., oil immersion.

FIG. 1. Section of cell from posterior region of tubule fixed by the Champy method and stained with iron haematoxylin, acid fuchsin. Cross section. Cytoplasmic granules appear to be grouping toward lumen.

FIG. 2. Section of cell from secreting region of tubule fixed by Regaud method and stained with acid fuchsin, methyl green. Cross section. Mitochondria show definite orientation toward lumen.

FIG. 3. A section of a nucleus from material fixed by the Champy method and stained with iron haematoxylin, acid fuchsin. The nucleoloid body is surrounded by nuclear bodies that are smaller than those toward the nuclear wall.

FIG. 4. Section of nucleus from material fixed by the Gatenby method and stained with iron haematoxylin, acid fuchsin. Two nuclear bodies are in the process of passing through the nuclear wall into the cytoplasm.

FIG. 5. Longitudinal section of cell from posterior region of gland fixed by the Champy method and stained with iron haematoxylin, acid fuchsin. Nucleoloid body in process of constricting pieces from periphery.

FIG. 6. Longitudinal section of cell showing two nucleoloid bodies present in nucleus. Regaud fixation.

Symbols: *cg.* cytoplasmic granules; *l.* lumen; *mf.* mitochondrial filaments; *ni.* chromatin; *n2.* nuclear bodies; *nb.* nucleoloid body; *s.* secretion.

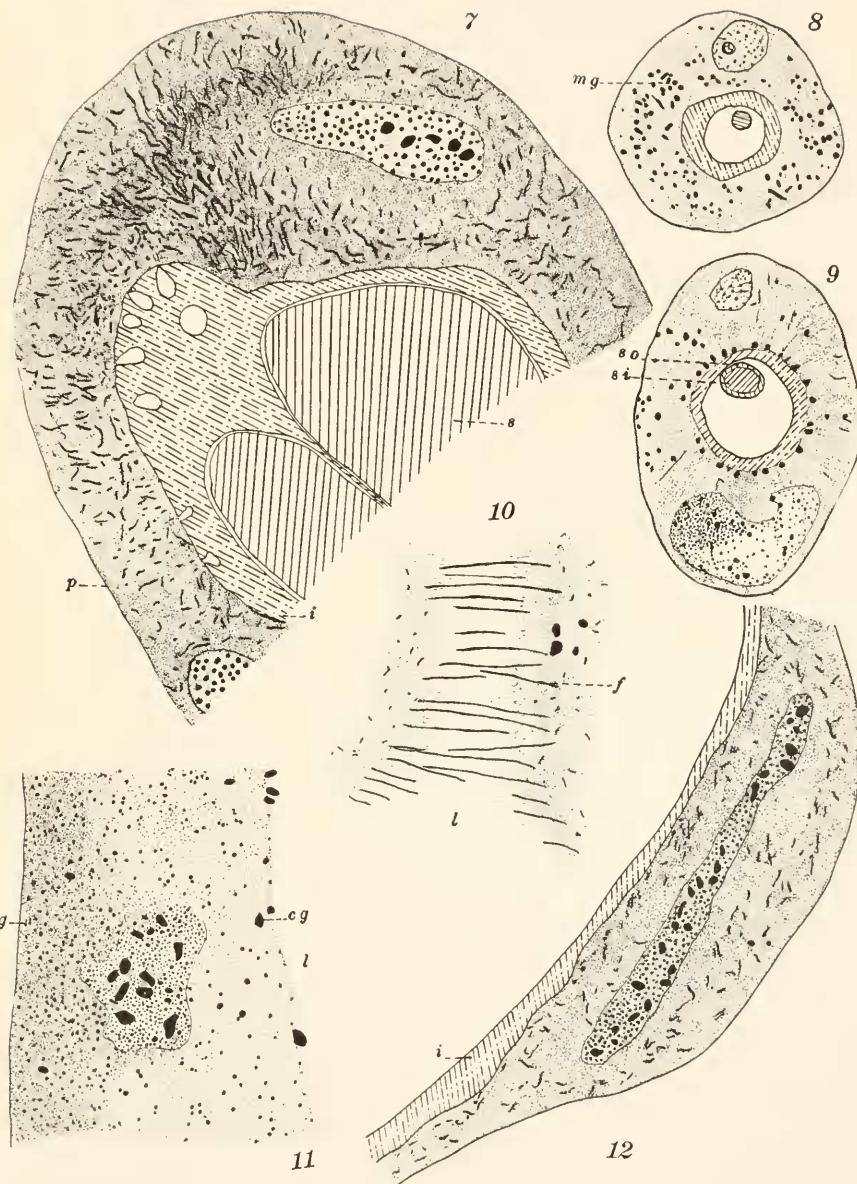


PLATE III.

FIG. 7. Section of cell taken from posterior part of middle region of gland fixed by the Regaud method and stained with acid fuchsin, methyl green. Cross section. Hyalin layer appears irregular and contains vacuoles along the border toward cell. Mitochondria slightly shorter. Two columns of secretion chance to be present at this level.

FIG. 8. Cross section of tubule from anterior conducting region of gland fixed by the Regaud method and stained with acid fuchsin, methyl green. Mitochondria present as granules. Intima definite.

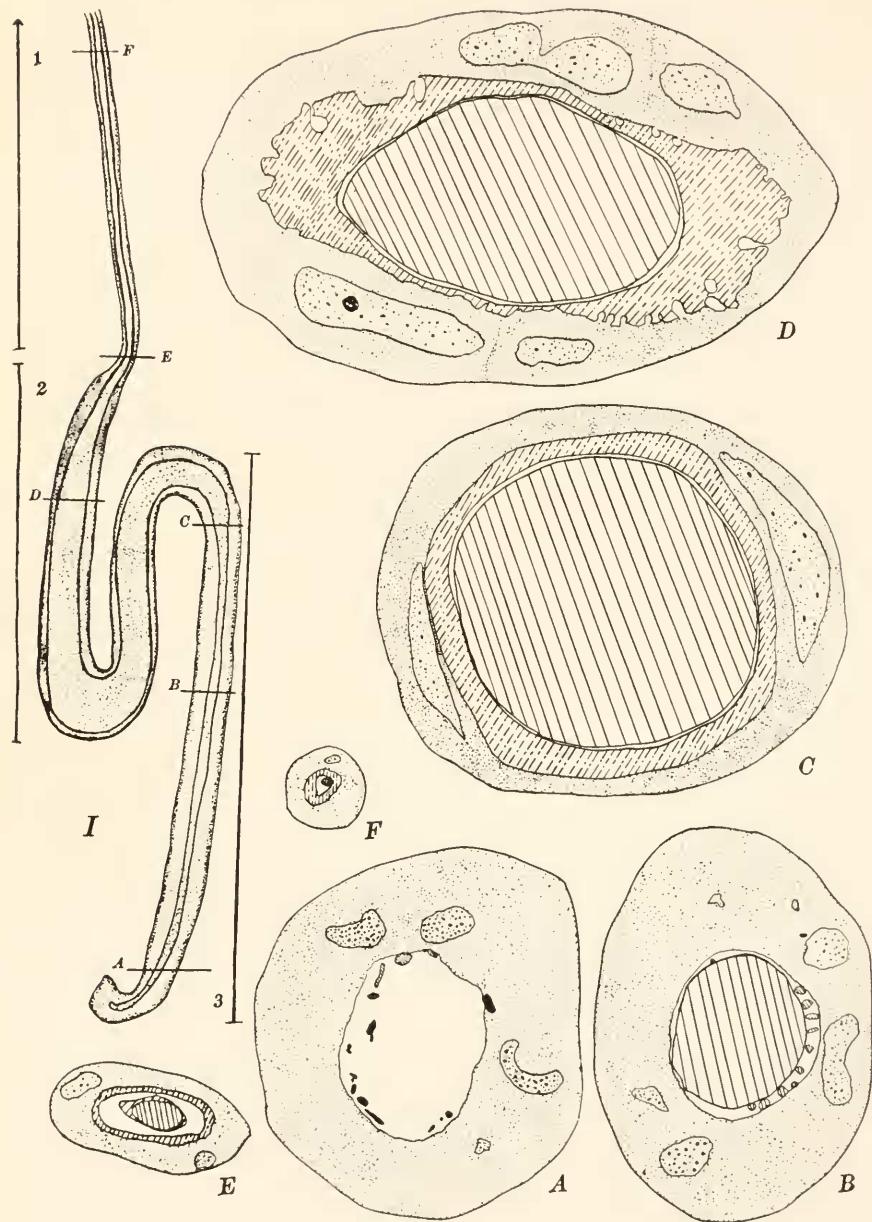
FIG. 9. Cross section from anterior conducting region of tubule fixed by the Champy method and stained with iron haematoxylin, acid fuchsin. Mitochondria appear as granules. Intima well defined, two types of secretion present.

FIG. 10. Longitudinal section of tubule fixed by the Champy method and stained with iron haematoxylin, acid fuchsin. Section taken from anterior part of the middle region at edge of lumen. Fibers appear extending from the edge of one cell to the edge of the cell opposite.

FIG. 11. Longitudinal section of cell from secreting region of tubule fixed by the Mann-Kopisch method, unstained. Numerous fine black granules fill cytoplasm and tend to concentrate toward the outer cell boundary.

FIG. 12. Cross section of cell from middle region of tubule fixed by the Regaud method, stained with acid fuchsin, methyl green. Mitochondria are shorter and less definitely orientated. Clear hyalin intima present along the edge toward lumen.

Symbols: *f.*, fibers; *g.*, granules; *mg.*, mitochondrial granules; *p.*, tunica propria; *si.*, inner layer of secretion; *so.*, outer layer of secretion.



THE LINKAGE DISTURBANCE INVOLVED IN THE CHROMOSOME TRANSLOCATION I. OF DROSOPHILA, AND ITS PROBABLE SIGNIFICANCE.

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The chromosomal abnormality in *Drosophila* known as "translocation I." was found by Bridges in 1917, and was first referred to by Morgan (1919); a preliminary account of it was given by Bridges in 1923. The case is a very remarkable one, unique in the literature to date, and it raises certain new problems concerning the arrangement which genes may have in a chromosome as well as concerning the changes in arrangement which they may undergo. The abnormality arose by a portion of the right hand end of chromosome II. breaking off and becoming attached near the middle of the right half of chromosome III. Bridges' data showed the size of the transposed piece and its approximate point of attachment on the third chromosome. It was known that the break in chromosome II. was between arc (ar) and plexus (pl), making the fragment about 8 units long, and that the transposed piece was attached somewhere between ebony (e) and rough (ro) in chromosome III. The deficient second chromosome was known as "Pale," from its effect on eosin-eyed flies, and the deficiency was lethal unless accompanied by translocation.

In the hope of getting further light on the chromosome change involved, the writer undertook to test more extensively the third chromosome linkage values in flies which carried the translocation. I wish to take this opportunity to express my indebtedness to Dr. H. J. Muller, who suggested the work, and whose aid and suggestions have made it possible. In these experiments the homozygous as well as the heterozygous condition of translocation was studied, and all of the left hand end of Chromosome III. was under genetic observation. Bridges had already shown that crossing over was greatly reduced in the region close to the locus of translocation; but his data included

only flies heterozygous for the transposed piece. The comparison of the homozygous and the heterozygous conditions with each other is of especial interest because of its bearing on the problem of the mode of attachment of the second chromosome fragment, as will be shown later.

The third chromosome mutant genes used in the experiments are, in their order from left to right along the chromosome: roughoid (*ru*), hairy (*h*), scarlet (*st*), pink (*p*), spineless (*ss*), delta (Δ), hairless (*H*), ebony (*e*), rough (*ro*), and claret (*ca*). Their locations are shown in the map of Fig. 1. Translocation is represented by *Tr*, and the deficient second chromosome by *Pl*. Curly (*Cy*) is a second chromosome gene used in balancing stocks. The linkage in flies homozygous for *Tr* was tested in two experiments. The summarized results for these crosses are given below, in Tables I. and II.

TABLE I.

$$\frac{\text{Cy}}{\text{Pl}} \frac{\Delta \text{ H e Tr}}{\text{ru h st p ss}} \text{♀} \times \text{ru h st p ss e } \delta^{\sigma}$$

Regional Crossover Frequencies.						Total.
<i>ru-h.</i>	<i>h-st.</i>	<i>st-p.</i>	<i>p-ss.</i>	<i>ss-Δ.</i>	<i>$\Delta-H.$</i>	
285	202	45	86	61	10	1,097
26.0%	18.4%	4.1%	7.8%	5.6%	.9%	

TABLE II.

$$\frac{\text{Cy}}{\text{Pl}} \frac{\Delta \text{ H e Tr}}{\text{Tr ro ca}} \text{♀} \times \text{e ro ca } \delta^{\sigma}$$

Regional Crossover Frequencies.				Total.
<i>$\Delta-H.$</i>	<i>H-e.</i>	<i>e-ro.</i>	<i>ro-ca.</i>	
8	13	27	16	463
1.7%	2.8%	5.9%	3.5%	

These figures show a remarkable drop below normal in the crossover values as the locus of translocation is approached. This may be seen by comparing their map values (see Fig. 1,

b and *c*) with the normal third chromosome map (Fig. 1, *a*). The map length of the left-hand third will be seen to be slightly increased, but the genes between pink and claret are crowded much closer together. There is an apparent lengthening of the

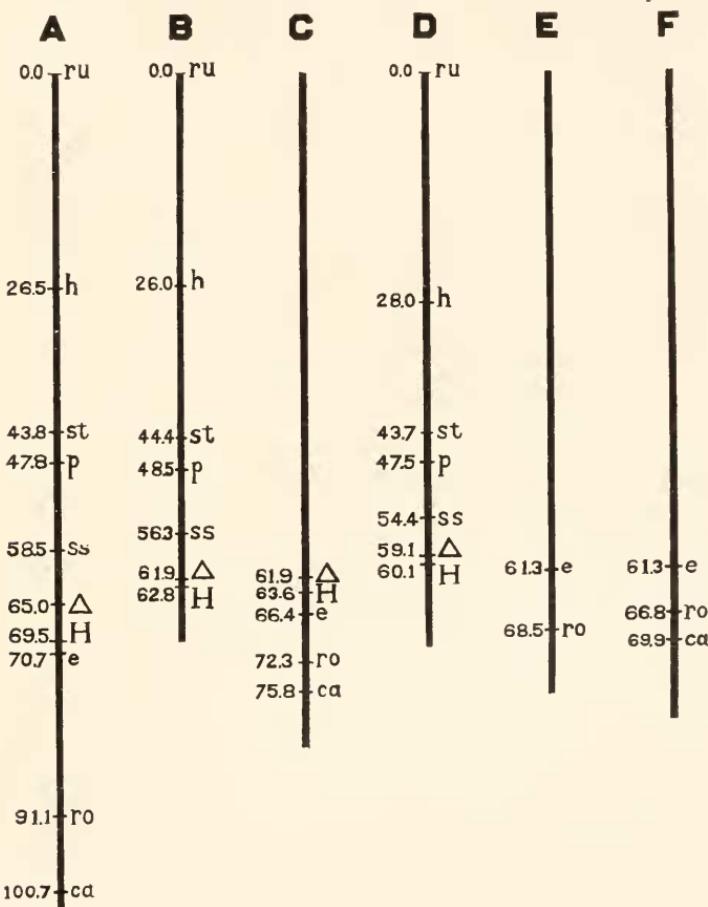


FIG. 1. (*a*) The normal third chromosome map. (*b*) and (*c*) Maps of third chromosome homozygous for translocation. (*d*), (*e*) and (*f*) Maps of third chromosome heterozygous for translocation.

distance between hairless and ebony, but this distance is so short, and the probable error so large, that the increase is probably not significant. Between ebony and rough, the region where the second chromosome fragment is attached, the per cent. of crossing over is less than one third of the normal value. These

relations are shown in Fig. 2, *a*, which shows the ratios of the values obtained in these experiments to the standard values of each of the major regions studied.

At the same time that these crosses were being made, the linkage in flies heterozygous for the abnormality was being tested. The same stocks were used in making up the crosses, and the characters used were introduced into the cross in as near the same way as possible. Both the homozygous and heterozygous lines were kept under the same conditions, so that any possible variations in viability would affect both lines alike and allow us to draw valid comparisons between them. As will be seen in Tables III. and IV., the results were almost identical with those of the first tests.

TABLE III.

Pl $\frac{\Delta \text{H e Tr}}{\text{ru h st p ss e}}$ ♀ \times ru h st p ss e ♂.

Regional Crossover Frequencies.						Total.
ru-h.	h-st.	st-p.	p-ss.	ss-Δ.	Δ-H.	
162	91	22	40	27	6	578
28.0%	15.7%	3.8%	6.9%	4.7%	1.0%	

TABLE IV.

Pl $\frac{\text{ru h st p ss Tr}}{\text{p ss e ro}}$ ♀ \times p ss e ro ♂.

Crossovers.		Total Flies.
(ru h st) p ss e	(ru h st) p ss ro	
42	41	
Total Crossovers	83	1,155
	7.2%	

In Table V. are results for a test involving the ebony-rough and rough-claret distances. Only those flies which did not show delta hairless could be used in computing crossover values in this experiment. This cross also gave data on the exact location of translocation, as will be discussed later.

TABLE V.

$$\frac{\text{Cy ru h st p ss Tr}}{\text{e ro ca}} \text{♀} \times \frac{\text{Cy } \Delta \text{ H e Tr}}{\text{Pl e ro ca}} \text{♂}$$

Regional Crossover Frequencies.		Total Utilizable Count.
e-ro.	ro-ca.	
50	28	902
5.5%	3.1%	

The results given in the last three tables are summed up in the chromosome maps shown in Fig. 1, *d*, *e*, and *f*, and Fig. 2, *b* shows the ratios of these values to the standard values. It will be seen on comparing these results with those based on the homozygous Tr flies that there is no noticeable difference in the crossover effects produced by the homozygous and by the heterozygous conditions.

The chief significance of the results probably lies in their bearing on the mode of attachment of the translocation. There are two conceivable ways in which the translocated piece might be attached between ebony and rough: it might be interpolated within this length, thus causing a prolongation of the thread between ebony and rough, or it might be attached somehow to the side of the original thread, thus resulting in a configuration of genes and of chromatin different from what had previously been regarded as normal, and not entirely in one line. The present results clearly disprove the first alternative, for if it were true, crossing over between ebony and rough should be increased when the flies were homozygous for the interpolated fragment. We must therefore conclude that the chromosome carrying translocation is branched or doubled in the region where the latter is attached.

The second point of significance is that the presence of translocation does not reduce crossing over throughout the chromosome. Beginning at the left-hand end of the chromosome, we find that the number of crossovers is practically normal until we reach the locus of pink, one third of the distance along the chromosome. From this point on, the map distance is markedly

shortened until the locus of translocation is reached. In this interval, between ebony and rough, the per cent. of crossing over is less than one third that of the normal. Between rough and

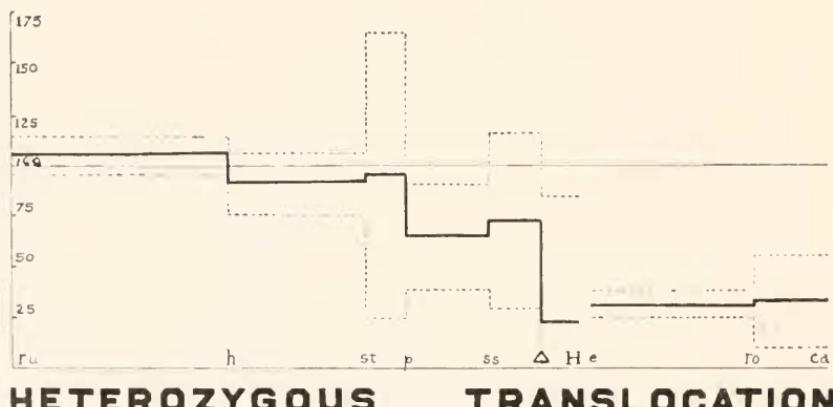
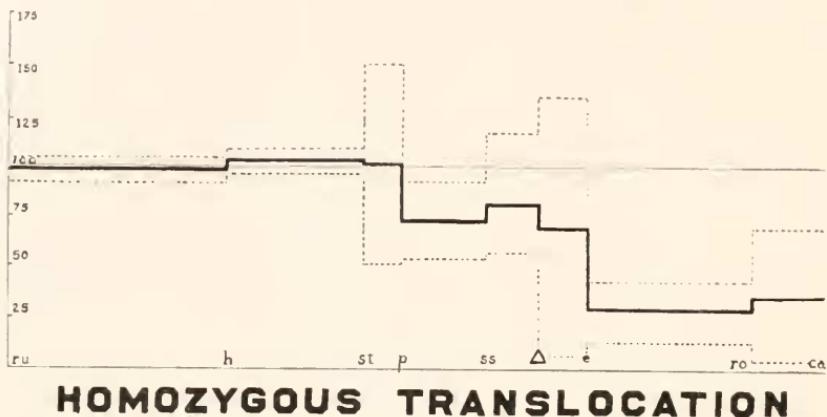


FIG. 2. Chart showing the ratios (in percentages) of the observed crossover values to the standard. The abscissa represents the length of the III. chromosome from roughoid to claret; the ordinate represents the percentage which the observed crossovers form of the standard value in each region. The heavy line represents the percentage observed; the dotted lines mark the limits of the probable error of this percentage, calculated for each interval.

claret the amount of crossing over rises again, approaching half the normal value. The number of flies involved was not large enough to yield reliable data on the coincidences, but as far as they went they agreed well with the normal.

If crossing over takes place at a stage in synapsis in which the chromosomal threads are twisted about each other, we can readily see why the presence of the attached fragment in either one or both of the third chromosomes should produce the effects that it does. Either by stiffening the threads so that they could not twist as tightly as in the rest of the chromosome, or by an actual interference with the loops, the transposed piece should tend to prevent the close association between the homologous chromosomes necessary for that interchange of genes which constitutes crossing over. This interference would produce its maximum effect at the point of attachment, and the effect would decrease to either side. This gradual decrease in the interference is well shown to the left of ebony. The locus of translocation is too close to the right-hand end of the chromosome to show any marked diminution of its effect toward that side. The rough-claret crossovers are, however, nearer to the normal percentage than those in the ebony-rough interval.

In the cross shown in Table V., 36 crossovers between ebony and rough were observed in which it was possible to follow the behavior of the translocation. The results are shown below.

TABLE VI.

Cy	ru h st p ss	Tr		♀	×	Cy	Δ	H e	Tr		♂.
e		ro ca				Pl	e	ro	ca		

Crossovers between (e) and (Tr)	Crossovers between (Tr) and (ro)
e Tr	ru h st p ss Tr ro (ca)
Pl e ro ca	Pl e ro ca
11	25

36

Translocation is, according to these figures, located at approximately 11/36 of the distance between ebony and rough, or at 76.9 on the chromosome map. The data given in Bridges and Morgan's monograph on the III. chromosome characters also show translocation to be between ebony and rough, but their figures show the locus of translocation to be closer to rough than to ebony. Also, the amount of crossing over in the ebony-

rough interval is even lower than in the experiments here reported. These differences may be due to a differential viability in the two cases; there may also be differences in genes influencing crossing over, but such differences in ratios do not affect the principal conclusion of this paper. The important point is that the effect of the translocation is the same whether it is heterozygous or homozygous.

SUMMARY.

1. The chromosomal abnormality in *Drosophila*, known as translocation I., is located at approximately 76.9 on the third chromosome.
2. The presence of translocation does not affect the crossover values for the first 45 units in the left-hand end of the chromosome. To the right of this point, the per cent. of crossing over progressively decreases as the locus of translocation is approached, reaching its minimum of less than one third normal value in the region between ebony and rough.
3. The same results are obtained no matter whether the translocation is homozygous or heterozygous.
4. The fact that the results are the same in both heterozygous and homozygous flies shows that the attached fragment is not interpolated in the third chromosome, but is attached to its side. The resulting chromosome is thus of a type which has hitherto not been reported: that is, one in which the genes are not in a single linear series.

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THE CHROMOSOMES OF THE CHICK SOMA.

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The accumulated evidence in favor of the chromosomes being in some way concerned with the determination and control of the somatic characters has become so impressive as to be almost unassailable despite the possible objection of a few that the last link in the chain (a demonstration of the actual activity of these nuclear bodies as hereditary character bearers), due to the deficiencies in our knowledge of cell chemistry, has yet to be forged. This latter point is one about which geneticists and cytologists are, at present, not greatly concerned and conclusive data upon the physiological behavior of the chromosomes does not seem at all imminent. While information is gradually accumulating in preparation for this final analysis much may still be accomplished by purely morphological studies with tentative interpretations of physiological activity based on these observations. A recent study of the chromosomes associated with sex in the chick (5) involved extensive observations on the chromosomes of dividing somatic cells, the results of which are recorded below.

OBSERVATIONS.

The technique of preparation (3), of counting and measuring the chromosomes, the amount and source of the material (5) have all been recorded and need not be repeated here. The chromosomes of over 150 cells have been drawn and studied. As the nervous system is the most actively growing of all the regions of the body the majority of the cells studied have naturally been found in some part of it. Cells with clear polar views of metaphase chromosomes have been found in the brain, neural tube,

¹ The observations recorded in this paper were made principally at the University of Pennsylvania during the writer's tenure of a National Research Council Fellowship.

optic cup, auditory vesicle, connective tissue, heart muscle, blood, amnion, gonads and in tissue cultures of muscles.

The Chromosome Number.—The difficulties involved in determining the exact number of chromosomes in the chick have been described in detail (5). Briefly, the trouble encountered may be said to be due, first to the extreme smallness of the shortest chromosomes of the complex making observation at times uncertain and second, to the apparent failure of the component granules of the smaller chromosomes to unite or at least to clearly indicate their proper relations to each other until late metaphase if indeed it really and always happens then.

The average number of chromosomes in the soma of the chick, based on 78 counts, is 33. I think that this is perhaps lower than the actual number which the most satisfactory counts indicate to be about 35 or 36. This variation in the chick is apparently due to a failure of the chromomeres or parts of the smaller chromosomes to unite rather than to fragmentation as in the case of the pig (1). This opinion is based upon the observations in the chick of larger numbers of distinct chromatin bodies (with occasional visible connecting threads between them) in the prophase than could be found in cells in later stages of mitosis whereas in the pig a reduction in the chromosome number as the metaphase was neared did not occur. The smaller chromosomes of the chick are the only ones concerned while in the pig the long ones are the ones that become broken up.

The Chromosome Form.—All of the longer chromosomes (about 12 in number) of the somatic cells are in the form of J's while the shorter ones are rods. Their structure and size relations (5) are alike in all the tissues studied including tissue cultures (4). The largest chromosome (chromosome pair in the male) of the complex has been shown to be the one associated with sex and is found in all somatic cells as clearly as in the cells of the gonads (5), Figs. 1 to 9. The female embryonic cells are heterozygous for this chromosome while the male cells are homozygous. No differences in the chromosomes or their behavior have been noted between any of the body tissues or in comparison with those of the embryonic germ cells.

DISCUSSION.

The morphological data on the behavior of the chromosomes in the developing embryo, although admittedly scant, has so far given no clue to the manner in which the chromosomes may contribute their potentialities to the growing organism. Before a study of somatic chromosomes had been made it seemed reasonable to expect to find the various highly differentiated cells of the body with chromosome numbers, morphology or behavior at variance both with those found in other tissues and with the specific number and general characteristics found in the gonads. This has been found not to be the case in at least three forms, the pig (1), the evening primrose (2) and the chick (5). There was some fragmentation of the somatic chromosomes in the first two forms but it was shown that none of the chromatin was lost. Furthermore this fragmentation was neither specific for any particular tissue nor constant in amount. In general the chromosome situation in the soma seems to be entirely similar to that found in the unreduced gonad cells. This is a matter difficult to understand in the present state of our information. Of all the characteristics that must be controlled or borne by or at least associated with the chromosomes (as shown by the studies on *Drosophila*) few have any chance for expression in the majority of the somatic cells and tissues and must therefore be inhibited in one way or another. The cells of the lower forms of animal life largely retain the germ-like power of reproducing the portion lost or even an entire organism following injury. This power is perhaps even more marked in plants. As differentiation becomes more extreme in the animal kingdom the ability to regenerate a part or a whole animal from cells already specialized becomes less and less until in the highest types of animals somatic cells are usually able to produce only somatic cells like themselves. Yet the chromosomes in these highly specialized cells have, in the examples studied, been found to be entirely similar to those in the germ cells containing the possibilities for a complex animal or plant. This may suggest that the chromosomes are functionless in the differentiated Soma. Or it may be that having contributed their share in the production of the specialized tissue are thereafter inactive as far as are concerned the general somatic

attributes or determiners with which originally they must have been equipped. If the latter interpretation is correct the perpetuation of the complete mitotic mechanism in the soma as it exists in the reproductive organs may seem, as far as any need for an exact division of the genes is concerned, somewhat unnecessary, to be classed possibly with vestigial organs and having no more significance. In view of the great delicacy of the mechanism that exists in all cells for accurately dividing the chromatin the last suggestion does not seem impressive. But as far as our morphological data on the behavior of somatic chromosomes go, together with the behavior of the soma in growth and regeneration, the above suggestion is at least a possibility to be considered in our attempt to get at the physiology of development and genetics.

SUMMARY.

1. The chromosome number in the somatic cells of the chick is about 35 or 36.
2. No characteristic differences between the number, the sizes, the morphology or the behavior of the chromosomes in comparison either with each other or with the cells of the gonads have been noted.
3. In view of the entire similarity of the somatic and germinal mitotic behavior and in consideration of the complete inability of highly specialized cells to regenerate other than cells similar to themselves it is tentatively suggested as a basis for future discussion that the somatic chromosomes, as far at least as their genetic function is concerned, have either become functionless or their cytoplasmic environment is incapable of reacting to the possibilities presumably carried by them.

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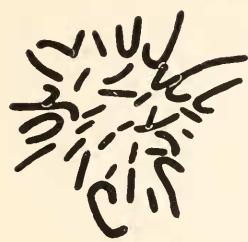
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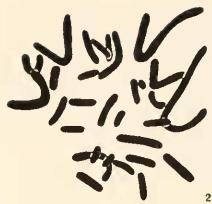
DESCRIPTION OF PLATE I.

All figures were drawn at table level with a Zeiss 1.5 mm. apochromat and a $15 \times$ Orthoscopic ocular. They are reproduced at the size originally drawn. All are polar views of metaphase plates in chick embryonic cells with the exception of Fig. 5.

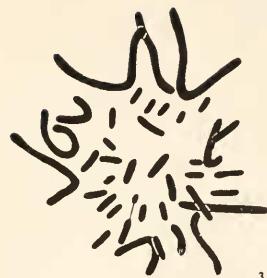
- FIG. 1. From optic cup. 35 chromosomes.
- FIG. 2. From amnion. 30 chromosomes.
- FIG. 3. From a male gonad. 39 chromosomes.
- FIG. 4. From neural tube. 32 chromosomes.
- FIG. 5. Late prophase in connective tissue cell grown in a tissue culture. 38 chromosomes.
- FIG. 6. From heart muscle. 33 chromosomes.
- FIG. 7. From brain. 35 chromosomes.
- FIG. 8. From female gonad. 36 chromosomes.
- FIG. 9. From neural tube. 35 chromosomes.



1



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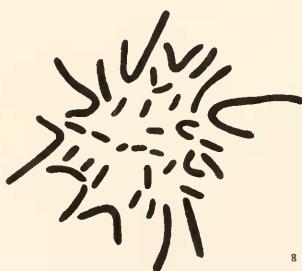
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CONTENTS



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Marine Biological Laboratory

WOODS HOLE, MASS.

VOL. LI

AUGUST, 1926

No. 2

CONTENTS

CASTLE, EDWARD S.	<i>Observations on Motility in Certain Cyanophyceæ</i>	69
HARMAN, MARY T., AND ROOT, FRANK P.	<i>Number and Behavior of the Chromosomes in Cavia cobaya (the Common Guinea Pig)</i>	73
HARVEY, E. NEWTON.	<i>On the Inhibition of Animal Luminescence by Light</i>	85
HARVEY, E. NEWTON.	<i>Oxygen and Luminescence, with a Description of Methods for Removing Oxygen from Cells and Fluids</i>	89
ESSENBERG, J. M.	<i>Complete Sex-Reversal in the Viviparous Teleost Xiphophorus helleri</i>	98
MOORE, CARL R.	<i>Scrotal Replacement of Experimental Cryptorchid Testes and the Recovery of Spermatogenetic Function (Guinea Pig)</i>	112
LAWRENCE, WALTER.	<i>The Fate of the Germinal Epithelium of Experimental Cryptorchid Testes of Guinea Pigs</i>	129

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BIOLOGICAL BULLETIN

OF THE

Marine Biological Laboratory

WOODS HOLE, MASS.

VOL. LI

SEPTEMBER, 1926

No. 3

CONTENTS

FROBISHER, MARTIN, JR.	<i>Observations on the Relationship Between a Red Torula and a Mold Pathogenic for Drosophila melanogaster</i>	153
YOUNG, DONNELL B.	<i>Nuclear Regeneration in Stylonychia mytilus</i>	163
MINNICH, DWIGHT ELMER.	<i>The Chemical Sensitivity of the Tarsi of Certain Muscid Flies</i>	166
GREGORY, LOUISE H.	<i>Effects of Changes in Medium During Different Periods in the Life History of Uroleptus mobilis</i>	179
YOUNG, WILLIAM C., AND PLOUGH, HAROLD H.	<i>On the Sterilization of Drosophila by High Temperature</i>	189
SKOWRON, STANISLAW.	<i>On the Luminescence of Microscolex phosphoreus Dug.</i>	199
KATER, J. McA.	<i>Chromosomal Vesicles and the Structure of the Resting Nucleus in Phaseolus</i>	209

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OF THE

Marine Biological Laboratory

WOODS HOLE, MASS.

VOL. LI

OCTOBER, 1926

No. 4

CONTENTS

LAMBERT, W. V., AND KNOX, C. W.	<i>Genetic Studies in Poultry</i>	225
MCNALLY, EDNA.	<i>Life Cycle of Nassula ornata and Nassula elegans: Are these Species Valid?</i>	237
KUSNEZOV, N. J.	<i>The Morphology of the Copulatory Structures in Some Cases of Gynandromorphism in Lepidoptera</i>	245
BERRY, S. STILLMAN.	<i>Note on the Occurrence and Habits of a Luminous Squid (Abralia veranyi) at Madeira</i>	257
GABRITSCHEVSKY, E.	<i>Convergence of Coloration Between American Pilose Flies and Bumblebees (Bombus)</i>	269

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BIOLOGICAL BULLETIN

OF THE

Marine Biological Laboratory

WOODS HOLE, MASS.

VOL. LI

NOVEMBER, 1926

No. 5

CONTENTS

BECKER, ELERY R.	<i>The Flagellate Fauna of the Cæcum of the Striped Ground Squirrel, Citellus tridecemlineatus, with Special Reference to Chilomastix magna sp. nov.</i>	287
BIGELOW, ROBERT PAYNE.	<i>Variation in the Number of Fin-Rays in Three Species of Fundulus of the Woods Hole Region.</i>	299
TANNREUTHER, GEORGE W.	<i>Life History of Prorodon griseus.</i>	303
BAKER, WOOLFORD B.	<i>Studies in the Life History of Engleia.</i>	321
BODINE, JOSEPH HALL.	<i>Hydrogen Ion Concentration in the Blood of Certain Insects (Orthoptera)</i>	363

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BIOLOGICAL BULLETIN

OF THE

Marine Biological Laboratory

WOODS HOLE, MASS.

VOL. LI

DECEMBER, 1926

No. 6

CONTENTS

WHITING, P. W.	<i>Influence of Age of Mother on Appearance of an Hereditary Variation in Habrobracon</i>	371
CALKINS, GARY N., AND BOWLING, RACHEL C.	<i>Gametic Meiosis in Monocystis</i>	385
GATES, G. E.	<i>Preliminary Note on a New Protozoan Parasite of Earthworms of the Genus Eutyphaeus</i>	400
KINNEY, ELIZABETH.	<i>A Cytological Study of Secretory Phenomena in the Silk Gland of Hyphantria cunea</i>	405
HAMLETT, G. W. DELUZ.	<i>The Linkage Disturbance Involved in the Chromosome Translocation I. of Drosophila, and its Probable Significance</i> 435	
HANCE, ROBERT T.	<i>The Chromosomes of the Chick Soma</i> ..	443

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